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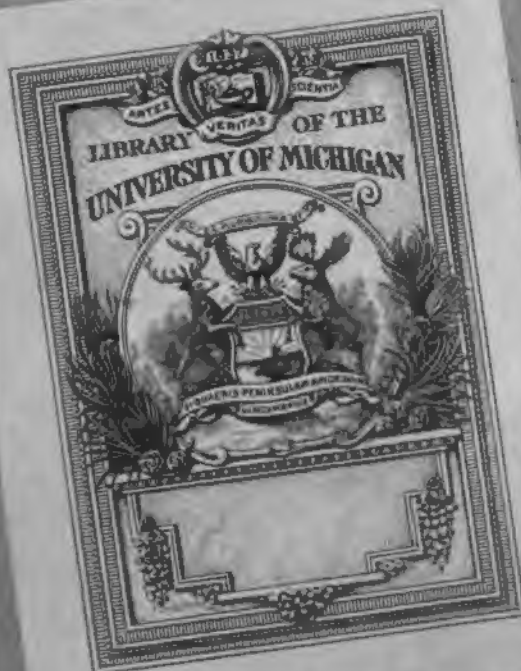
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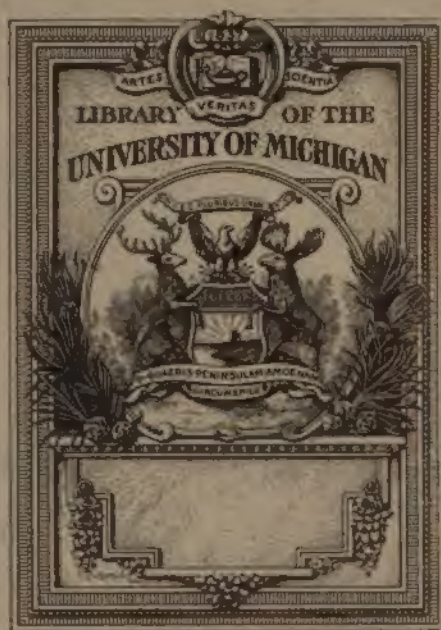
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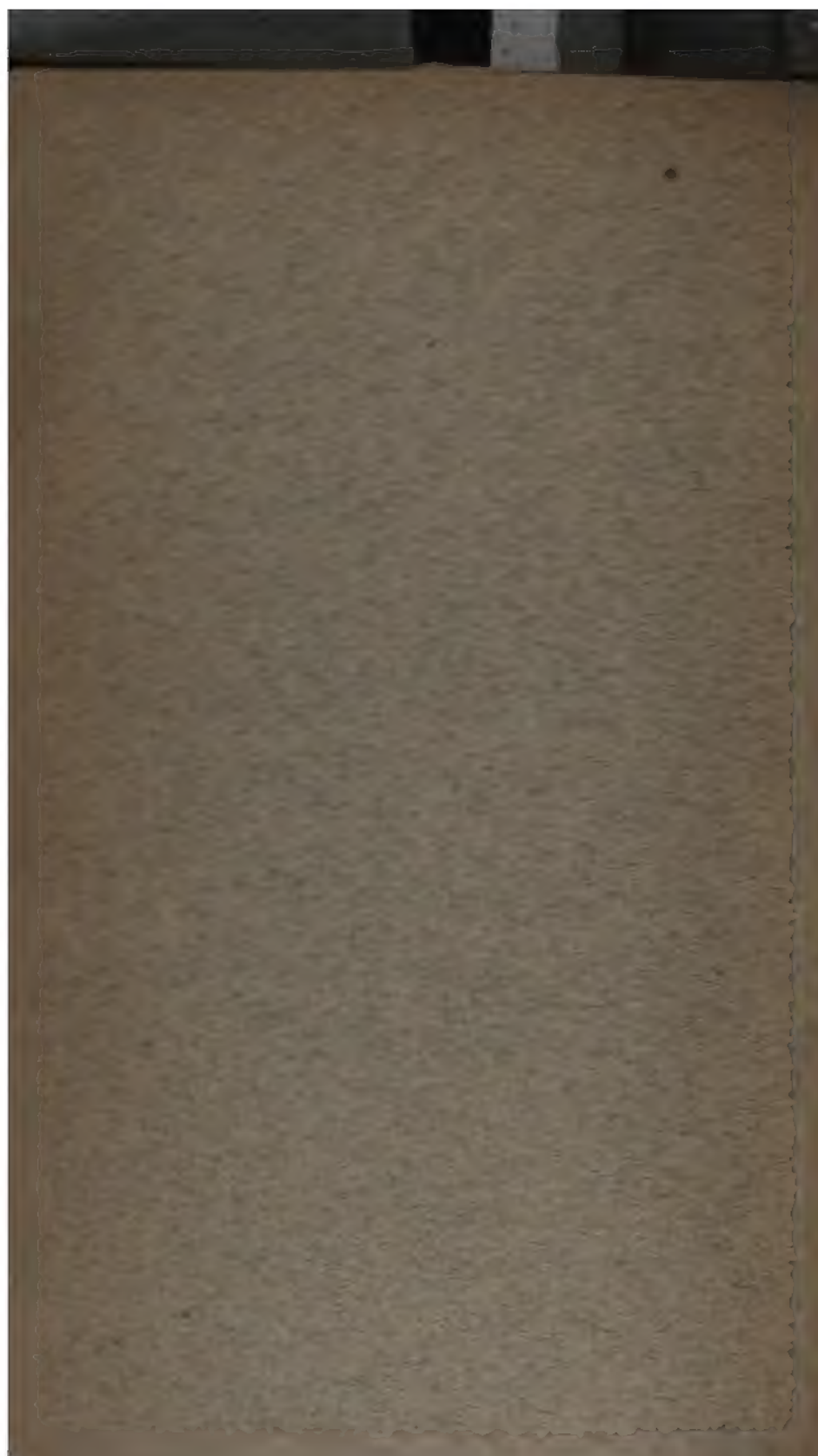
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AMERICAN ANNALS
OF
THE DEAF,

EDITED BY

EDWARD ALLEN FAY,

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

J. WILLIAMS, OF CONNECTICUT, R. O. JOHNSON, OF
INDIANA, J. E. RAY, OF NORTH CAROLINA,
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MANITOBA,

Committee of the Conference.

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NEW SCHOOL BUILDING OF THE OHIO INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF.

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

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SOME PICTURES AND BOOKS.

IN speaking of pictures and books for children, we will take a hint from the remark of the distinguished jurist to a fledgling who was making himself an intolerable nuisance by his elaborate disquisition on the law bearing upon a certain case : " Permit me to suggest that there are *some* points of law which a chief justice of the supreme court of the commonwealth may be supposed to know." Assuming, then, that " some " things may go without saying, we will not enter upon an argument to show that it is desirable for our pupils to look at good pictures and read good books, but will merely say a word in regard to a few which have recently come under our notice, and are some of them so new that they may not be generally known.

A long step forward in popular education has certainly been taken when, with the modest outlay of one cent, it is possible to place in the hands of a child a distinct, well-printed reproduction of one of the world's masterpieces of art. The list of artists whose works may thus be brought before our children includes, among scores from the early days of the Renaissance to the present time, such names as Giotto, Da Vinci, Michael Angelo, Raphael, Titian, Murillo, Rubens, Van Dyck, Rembrandt, Reynolds, Landseer, and Burne-Jones. Besides these copies of paintings, The Perry Pictures Company (Malden, Mass.) publishes,

at the same rate of one dollar a hundred, very clear and good pictures of scenery, buildings, statuary, and famous men. Their catalogue gives, I think, something over a thousand subjects.

It is hardly possible to overestimate the utility of pictures like these,—but we forget ourselves and are instructing the chief justice in the principles of common law, which is precisely what we promised not to do. We will drop this subject and turn to the books.

In examining the courses of study and supplementary reading in all our best public schools to-day, we find no one thing more marked than the tendency to bring children, at as early an age as may be, into vital contact with the world's great literature; and no one feature in the educational outlook is more hopeful than this. The "inane rat and cat stories of American 'Readers'"—to quote from Miss Mary E. Burt, whose name is well known in our schools—are rapidly giving place to simplified versions of the old classic tales which have proved their right to exist by existing for centuries. The last four or five years have produced many delightful little books in which our boys and girls may get to know the gods and heroes of ancient Greece and Rome, and we now welcome an attempt to familiarize them with the heroic legends of their own race.

A very attractive volume recently published by the firm of G. P. Putnam's Sons, entitled "Siegfried and Beowulf," contains in simple language the stories of those two worthies. On opening the book one is prepossessed in its favor before reading a word, the page is so beautiful. The author is Madame Zenaïde A. Ragozin, whose histories of "Chaldea," "Assyria," "Media," and "Vedic India," in Putnam's Story of the Nations Series, are widely known. It is another hopeful sign of the times that nowadays scholars of international reputation do not consider it beneath them to employ their pens in writing for children.

We predict for this book a decided popularity among our older pupils. It has long seemed to us that the Nibelungenlied and Beowulf—so full of Berserker rage and high courage and undying loyalty—were exactly the kind of stories to delight boys. Indeed, we have found that our own miserable, extemporaneous versions of them have aroused so much interest that we have been wishing for a long time that somebody would do the work which Madame Ragozin has just done so well. Of course we had Baldwin's "Story of Siegfried" and one or two other little things founded on the Nibelungenlied, but nothing reproducing it as does this ; and, so far as we know, Beowulf has never before been written out in simple English at all.

To show the dignity of style to which the English of these translations sometimes rises, we cannot do better than to quote a passage from Beowulf. Its subject brings inevitably to the mind of the reader those lines of Matthew Arnold's beginning,

" But when the gods and heroes heard, they brought
The wood to Balder's ship, and made a pile."

Of course the boldest might turn pale at the idea of having his words placed side by side with Matthew Arnold's, and we imagine that Madame Ragozin would be the last person in the world to sanction a proposal to compare a bit from a child's story-book with the finest passage in Arnold's matchless poem. Perhaps we should not have ventured to suggest such a thing had not the resemblance between the two situations been so striking ; but indeed it seems to us that the extract given below, in its lofty simplicity, serene dignity, and exquisite cadences, bears the comparison pretty well :

" As for Skyld, he departed, in the fulness of time, ripe in honours and years, to go into the Master's keeping. His faithful comrades then carried him forth to the shore of the sea, as he himself had ordered. The black, heavy

earth should have no part in him ; the sea had brought him, the ever-moving, many-hued ; the sea should bear him hence, after his long years of power.

“ There at anchor rode the ship, glistening fresh, outward-bound, fit for a prince. Down they laid their illustrious dead, the dear chief of the land, dispenser of bounties, on the lap of the ship, by the mast. There was great store of precious things ; ornaments from remote parts, weapons of rare worth, mail armour finely wrought, and harness glittering in silver and in gold ; a multitude of treasures which were to pass with him far away into the watery realm. Furthermore they set by him the royal banner, gold-broidered, high over his head. As its folds unfurled and glittered in the breeze, it told the skies, and the sun, and the stars of night, that a King went forth into the world on his last voyage. They set the helm, and gave him over to the ocean, sad at heart, with tear-dimmed eyes, and silent in their mourning. And Who received that burthen—no man under heaven, be it priest or chieftain or wise seer, can ever tell or know.”

To increase—in the eyes of grown-up readers, at any rate—the value of these “ Tales,” each is supplemented with a “ note,” giving what is known, or we should say conjectured, of its origin and of the changes which it has undergone. In concluding the note on the Nibelungenlied the author says, finely :

“ Criticism of the poem is not an object of this notice. Its greatest beauties of incident or character will surely be found self-evident ; likewise the beautiful or pathetic touches of detail, such as the first meeting of the two Queens,—that of the radiant young lovers, Siegfried and Kriemhilde,—the death scene of Siegfried in the forest, when his blood dyes the wild-flowers red, as in Kriemhilde’s dream,—or Folker, the minstrel-knight, keeping sad guard with Hagen, and softly playing his doomed comrades to sleep with soothing tunes from home, that they

may have one last peaceful night's rest before the morrow's combat, the end of which is a foregone conclusion. One thing is certain: there is nothing finer or more pathetic in Homer than the conflict of duties in Rudiger's soul, and his despair when loyalty to his King and his oath compel him to do battle without quarter against those who have been his honoured guests and well-beloved friends,—or his last parley with those friends, and his deliberate seeking of expiation in death at their hands."

One word more about some little books and we have finished. Those of us who have been teaching older classes for a number of years have all probably wished at times to give them especial bits of literature as studies, and have been confronted by the fact that the volumes containing the desired selections were altogether too expensive to be provided *ad libitum* for class use, when perhaps only a few pages in each were wanted. We have utilized public libraries, have sacrificed our own—and our neighbour's—loved volumes, and, last and worst, we have hektographed sheets by the ream. We have labored and suffered much, and now it seems as if we were to enter into our rest. The voice of our groaning has, I suppose, reached the ear of the Educational Publishing Company; at any rate, something has stirred its heart to come to our relief. For the past two or three years it has been doing a remarkably good thing in putting out a series which it calls the "Young Folks' Library of Choice Literature." This library must by this time number more than a hundred volumes, each of which contains about thirty-two well-printed pages, in very decent-looking, strong, manila covers, and is sold for five cents. It is intended that this series shall supply more or less reading for every grade in our public schools. The first volumes are in this style, for the kindergarten:

"Annie is a little lame girl.

She cannot walk at all.

She sits in her chair all day"—
and the completed library includes such literature as "Rip Van Winkle," "Rab and His Friends," "The King of the Golden River," "The Ancient Mariner," and some of Shakespeare's plays.

Work of the same character is being done by several other publishing houses besides the one mentioned, and among them all we have now a great variety of little books containing much of the very best that the English language has to offer.

On the whole it seems as if there were some warrant for an optimistic view of the educational situation. When men and women of the ripest scholarship are sparing no efforts to bring to our children the treasures bequeathed to them by other tongues in remote ages; when a copy of the Sistine Madonna, which in nowise shocks the æsthetic perceptions of an artist, may be had for one cent, and *Comus* or *King Lear*—in type which Ruskin might deign to approve—may be had for five; when school superintendents are beginning to insist that public-school teaching shall aim from the very foundation not only to give children useful facts, but shall also endeavor with equal earnestness to develop their power of appreciating what is noble and beautiful, is it too much to hope that, after a few more generations shall have come and gone, boys and girls will no longer finish a course in our secondary schools, either for the deaf or the hearing, having no more adequate conception than has a Philippine Tagal of those monumental works which stand forever on the shores of time as the high-water marks of human genius?

KATHARINE FLETCHER,
Instructor in the Clarke School, Northampton, Massachusetts.

THE FIFTH YEAR'S WORK.*

III. GEOGRAPHY.

THE plan and the methods of teaching geography this year must be entirely different from what we have used before. Heretofore we have been able to show our pupils the things we were talking of, and have made them familiar with those things before they learned the signs and names used in books to represent them. Hereafter we shall almost always have to learn about the things from maps, pictures, and written descriptions.

The teacher who is to teach geography to a fifth-year class should carefully plan his work long in advance, and be constantly on the lookout for pictures and objects of various kinds, with which to give living interest to his lessons. The pictures can be gathered from magazines, illustrated papers, catalogues, etc., should be mounted on card-board, and, if large enough, should be arranged to hang up. From time to time, as opportunity offers, photographs should be bought to help out. Geography, when properly taught, is a great means of developing the mind and of teaching language, while at the same time giving a store of practical information. It can be made a means of education, of giving a pupil the ability to imagine, to combine and generalize, and to reason, which has no equal, not even in arithmetic. On the other hand, it has often been taught so that it was almost utterly devoid of interest, and served no purpose except to exercise the memory. The old-fashioned way was to have everything committed to memory. Some little attempt was, perhaps, made to explain and illustrate the definitions, but very often the teacher took it for granted that the pupil would understand these, or grow into

*Continued from the last number of the *Annals*, page 380.

understanding them from constant repetition. Starting with the definition "Geography is a description of the surface of the earth," the pupils were never made to connect what they studied, either with anything they can see or with their former knowledge. Instead of studying the surface of the earth, they too often studied only books and maps; and I am sure that too often many of them never realized that what they learned from the book was related in any way to what they had seen, or would ever see. I once asked a class, who were well over toward the last of Harper's School Geography, "Where is the Earth?" They did not know. "Did you ever see it?" After a good deal of thought, one of the pupils answered, evidently with a sentence memorized from some text-book: "We cannot see it, because it is so far off." This class had no idea that they were studying about what was all around them. Their trouble was that they did not have a single clear idea behind all the language they had memorized. Their study of geography was as useful as the Latin which they were also studying—an exercise in verbal memory only, nothing more.

We are not to teach geography in this way. If we were, there would be no need to tell how to do it. I have no objection to a text-book. In fact, I should give one to each pupil; and, after I was sure that each pupil had thoroughly mastered the idea expressed in language by the book, I should assign lessons to be committed to memory. It will never hurt a child to commit to memory good idiomatic English that he understands, and the evening study-hour is intended for such work.

Our special objects this year will be to build up in the mind of each child a clear and distinct concept—a vivid mental picture—of the following:

1. The Earth as a whole, and its shape and size.
2. The size and position of the great land-masses:
North America, South America, Europe, Asia,
Africa, and Australia.

3. The size and position of the oceans.

4. The physical structure of North America, considered as a type of a continent; its size, etc., etc.

I do not mean that these objects are to be given in this exact order, or that they are to be kept carefully distinct; but in all our teaching we are to keep the building of these ideas carefully and continually in mind, and, whenever an opportunity offers, we must call them up before our pupils.

1. *The Earth as a Whole.*

To teach this lesson we need two globes—the largest one and the smallest one we can get—and all the maps and pictures of the Earth that are convenient. One of the globes should certainly be at least twelve inches in diameter, and the other one not more than five inches. We shall also need two pictures, one large and the other small, of the same person or thing.

Begin by telling your pupils that you are going to talk to them about the world we live in. Write on your slate: "The World—The Earth." Tell them these two names mean the same thing—all of this place where we live. Tell them to look out of doors. All that they can see is a small part of the Earth. Ask them to think of their homes; of all the different places they have ever known. Still all of this is the Earth, and a very small part of it.

Show the large globe. Explain that it is a copy—a model—of the Earth. It is just the same shape. The different parts of it, and the countries on it, are in just the same position as the parts of the real Earth and the real countries on it are; but the Earth has no support attached to it as the globe has. Show the small globe. It is another copy or model of the Earth. It is much smaller than the other globe, and does not show as many

things, but still it is a copy of the same Earth. Pictures of the same thing, or models of it, need not be the same size as the thing itself, or the same size as each other. Here is a map of our school-room, which we made last year. It is not nearly as large as the school-room, but still it is much larger than the map of the school-room on this map of the whole floor of the school building. Here is a map of the whole city. There is not room on it to show the school-room at all, only the whole building. Here is a map of the county, and on that the school building cannot even be shown.

We can have pictures of the same person or thing that are not at all the same size, or nearly the size of the person or thing they represent. Here is a picture of our school. It is very much smaller than the school, but it is very much larger than this little photograph. Here is a large picture of the Superintendent. It is not nearly as large as he, but it is much larger than this little photograph, yet both of them are good pictures of the same person. We can look at these pictures and find out many things about the man ; and in the same way we can look at two globes, and, though they are so small, we can find out many things about the earth from them. Here on the wall is a map of the Earth. It is larger than the globe. It is not round like the globe. This part shows the part of the globe that is next to you ; this other part shows the part of the Earth that is shown on that side of the globe that is away from you. Here are some other maps of the earth, and some pictures of it.

Find on the globe the place where you are. Unless the globe is very much larger than school globes usually are, this will be rather difficult. The teacher can possibly locate the State pretty accurately, but hardly the city. Tell your pupils that this is because the whole Earth is so much larger than all this part of it where we are. Do not now try to give an idea of its size, because we shall dwell dwell at length on that later.

Write : "Can we see the inside of a globe?" Let the pupils examine for themselves and see that we cannot. Neither can we see the inside of the Earth. We can dig down into it a little way, but not far. We can only see the outside—the surface. Geography teaches us about this outside of the Earth, and the things and people on it. We can start from where we are and travel over the surface of the Earth any way we wish. If we go this way—south—the country at first will look just as it does here. We shall see corn, oats, wheat, grass, etc., etc., just such as we see here. We shall see the same kind of people. They will dress in the same way, speak the same language, and do the same things. We shall see the same sort of animals. The trees will look the same. We shall have to travel a long way, farther than we could walk in several weeks, before we begin to see things we did not see at home. After a while we shall see many more negroes. We shall not see as much wheat, but we shall begin to see flax and tobacco. Then we shall see cotton growing in the fields, and possibly sugar-cane. Then we shall come to a great body of salt water called the Gulf of Mexico. We can look off across it, miles and miles, and see nothing but water.

As you take your pupils on this imaginary journey show every picture you can get of the things you talk of, or, better, if you can possibly get them, the things themselves; and point out on the globe or map the course you take. Make as much use as you can of the lessons to teach language. Make your pupils do some writing, about what you tell or show them, every day, remembering that if your progress in geography is made slower by this, you are getting a rich reward in language.

If we go on, and either sail across the Gulf of Mexico or walk around it, we shall come to a country where it is very warm, and where few of the people can speak or understand English. Bananas, coffee, oranges, and many

strange trees and plants grow there. We shall not see a single maple or apple tree. We left these behind in our own country. There are monkeys in the woods, alligators in the rivers, and snakes everywhere. Show pictures of these things and have stories and descriptions of them written. If we keep on going south, we shall cross great rivers, and after a while shall come to cooler regions, where wheat is raised. If we keep on, the climate will get colder and colder. After a while we shall come to the ocean. If we get in a ship and still go south, at last we shall come to a place where it is so cold that the whole ocean is frozen, so that our ship can sail no farther. We cannot sail around the world this way, because the ocean around the south pole is always frozen. Show the globe. This part, right at the bottom, is called the south pole. The ocean around it is always frozen, and the land is covered with snow and ice. The point directly opposite it, at the north, is called the north pole; and the ocean around it is also frozen. Show some pictures of these things, and bring in the animals, etc. Both poles and the parts of the earth around each are always very cold.

Take trips in the same way north, east, and west. Show many pictures and articles from the countries you are speaking of, even if they are things which the children know well, such as sugar, coffee, tea, spices, cotton, ostrich feathers, etc., etc.

After you have finished your series of journeys, you can give a definition of geography which they will appreciate: "Geography teaches us about all these things we have been talking about—far-off countries, wild animals, hunting, seas, icebergs, strange cities, forests, rivers, mountains, all the many things God has made, and all that men have built on the Earth."

We mean all these things when we say, "Geography is a description of the surface of the Earth, and its inhabitants," because all these things are on the outside of the huge ball on which we live.

How do we know that the Earth is round? Some teachers attach the greatest importance to this question, but I should not pause very long on it. The great thing is to illustrate it so that the children will see for themselves, and, seeing, understand. The Earth seems to us to be flat, because it is so very large. If we take a very small piece of a large globe, it seems flat. The part of the Earth that we can see at one time is less than that part of a globe which the head of a pin would cover. If we only saw that much of this globe, we could hardly tell that it was round. Draw an arc of a very large circle on your slate. It seems to curve, because we see so much of it. Rub out all except a very small part of it. We cannot tell whether this small part curves or not. Call in some pupils from another class and ask them. Draw a long straight line tangent to this part of the circle, and show that they practically coincide.

Take up the proofs of the shape of the Earth, one by one, and demonstrate them before the class. Let them see by sticking objects on the globe that we can see the tops of distant objects before we can see their bottoms; and give them a ball, a cylinder, and a circular disk, and let them see that the ball alone casts a circular shadow. If an eclipse of the moon occurs, show them the circular shadow of the Earth on the moon.

To teach the size of the Earth, explain the meaning of circumference and diameter, by showing the globe. Let the pupils measure both as nearly as they can. Have a number of round and circular objects, such as hats, plates, circular disks of paper, cups, balls, etc., etc., for them to measure. When they have a distinct idea of what these words mean, tell them that the circumference of the Earth is 25,000 miles, and its diameter about 8,000. These figures will give them only the vaguest sort of an idea, and you must try and make it more definite by comparisons and illustrations. Many such may come into your mind. The following are good :

Suppose there were a good road around the Earth, and that it went in a straight line, across land and water, all the way around, like this mark on the globe. How long do you think it would take you to walk around the Earth? Make your pupils guess, and then work it out for them. If they walked twenty miles a day—very few children could do that—and six days every week, it would take them about four years to walk around, or just about as long as since they first came to school. Suppose there was a railroad, and the cars ran twenty miles an hour, day and night, without stopping, it would take them about as long as from the opening of school till Thanksgiving Day, or from New Year's Day till Washington's Birthday.

A man once sent a postal card around the world in a hundred and twelve days, and a lady really travelled around it in about seventy days.

After each lesson write a short summary, and have it copied into a book, to be preserved. Parts of this you can have committed to memory, and you can review by using these books. Encourage the pupils to add to this written work anything else that they know.

2. The Position and Size of the Continents.

Begin to teach about the continents by showing pictures of the people, animals, etc., belonging to each, and talking about them, not forgetting the most important and curious productions. Begin with any one of them, except North America. Take Africa, for example. Show some pictures of negroes, and as many as you can, showing the dress, habits, homes, etc., of the natives of Africa. If you can possibly get hold of anything that came from Africa, show it, and let the children handle it and ask questions about it. Ask them if they know where people like these live, where such houses and animals are found, etc. Make them show you on the globe where Africa is,

and also on two or three different maps. Show them on the globe and maps how we should go from here to Africa. There is so much about Africa that will be of interest to a young class, that you can make any number of talks about it, and the order of these makes little difference. You can begin at the Strait of Gibraltar and go south, or at the Cape of Good Hope and go north, or follow our black man to his home in central Africa, and work outward from there. In either way you can manage to impress often upon your children the position of the Dark Continent, its surroundings, size, climate, etc. We only want a general idea of these, and the young teacher who does not clearly keep in mind the object we have in view—the position and size of the continents—is apt to be too particular and minute in her teaching. Aim constantly to make the pupils realize that Africa is a real country, with actual living people, and to get them to think of it in that way, and not as a place on the map or globe. Do this in several talks with the children. Be sure and make these conversations, and not lectures from the teacher. Every single fact that you can make the children find out, or think out for themselves, in any way, is worth a dozen that you tell them ; and when you must supply information it will make a much deeper impression if you give it in answer to a question from them than it would if merely thrown at them. For instance, when you come to talk about tea, if you tell them that it is the dried leaves of a plant, they may remember it, or they may not. It will be of no particular interest to them, but if you make them soak a few leaves in water, and unroll them, and see for themselves what it is, you will make an impression that will last, and, unless you are well informed about tea, you will be liable to break down under the cross-examination that will follow. If you go on and show pictures of the tea-plant—of the way it is grown, marketed, and transported—and have the children

find the countries from which it comes, and trace out the routes by which it is exported, etc., you will never need to do any more teaching about tea. If you wish to do so, you can make a great many language lessons on Africa, or subjects closely connected with it. For instance, take a cat; show its claws and the wonderful way it can spread them out or close them; weigh the cat; measure it. Draw lines showing its length, height, etc. Ask questions about its habits, food, etc. Show a picture of a lion. Bring out likenesses to the cat in claws, whiskers, etc. Give size, weight, etc. Draw lines showing length and height, and compare with the cat. Ask about a lion's food, and how it gets it. Tell of lion-hunts. Show its habitat on the globe and map.

Take the other continents in the same way. Talk about their inhabitants. Locate the continents. Bring out all of their peculiarities. Compare each with those you have already taught. Sketch the one you are studying on those you have already studied, using different colors for each. If you cannot do this, at least compare their sizes, drawing a line for the length and breadth of each. Leave areas alone for the present, unless you are sure that your children have a clear idea of area. Do not go too much into detail, but remember that the chief object of your teaching should be to bring out the idea that each continent is a real country, and a part of the Earth, and to fix its position and relative size.

3. The Size and Position of the Oceans.

Locate each ocean on the globe just as you did the continents. Tell your pupils that all of this is water, and that the water is salt—so salt that no one can drink it. Ask how we use the land, and how the water. You will have to render a great deal of help on this by showing proper pictures and asking questions. Call attention to

the fact that there is not nearly as much land as water on the globe. Draw a large circle, at least two feet in diameter, and tell them that it represents all the surface of the Earth, land and water both. Divide it into quarters. Ask what each is called. Shade one of them. Tell them it represents all the land surface on the globe. Ask what part of the whole it is, and make them write: One quarter of the earth's surface is land. Ask what the rest of the surface is. Have them write: Three-fourths of the surface of the Earth is water. Develop some idea of the size of the ocean. Explain how ships can steam hundreds of miles every day and not be in sight of land for weeks at a time. Give problems, such as you did about the size of the Earth and the continents. Explain that all the water taken together is often called the ocean or the sea; but that there are also five grand divisions of the whole ocean, each of which is called an ocean, and that there are many seas. Take up each of the oceans separately, and talk about it. Tell its size. Show what continents and other oceans touch it. Say something about the fish and animals, the depth, etc. Give a language exercise on fish and boats. Bring out by pictures and questions something of the history of navigation, from the first rude raft to the modern steamship. Take your pupils out doors and measure off on the ground the length and breadth of some ocean steamer. Tell of the materials from which ships have been made, from skins to steel; of the means of propulsion, from a pole to the steam-engine; of the disasters which happen to ships—wrecks, leaks, fire, battles, etc.

After this you may teach a few of the names of the different forms of land and water. Show these by taking your class out to some stream or pond, and finding them, or let the pupils build them in any convenient place out of doors, or in doors on the sand-table, or even on a slate with clay or putty. Let them draw pictures or maps of them. Ask what a cape, an island, a bay, or a strait is,

and let them make or draw one. When in this way you are sure that the children really know what the things are, you may let them define them in their own language. Then help them to put this language into a clear and concise form.

4. *North America as a Continent.*

I am very much in favor of teaching that a continent is a very large, and, roughly speaking, a basin-shaped body of land. A continent must have at least two mountain systems, and a great body of lower land between them. These mountain systems form the rim of the basin. The typical diagram of a continent would be :



AB is the ocean level; C one mountain system, D the other. CED is the central plain; E the valley of the great river of the continent.

Do not begin to teach the class with this diagram, but at first teach North America as you did the other continents. After that, keep this diagram as the generalization toward which you are working. If you can manage it—and it is not as hard as it seems—go to work to have a large relief-map of North America made by all the pupils of your class, and a small one by each individual. Have the large map made on a foundation of thin board, at least two feet wide and three feet long. If you cannot manage the drawing on this board, trace the outline of the continent and its principal rivers, lakes, mountains, etc., from some good wall-map of the right size, and paste this tracing on your board. Find a map of North America in some old geography, about the right size for your pupils' maps, which should be made either on slates or small boards with rims

around them. Paste this map on tough pasteboard, and have it sawed out with a jig-saw. Saw slits along the principal rivers, mountain chains, lakes, and other things that you intend to show on your relief-maps, being careful to leave enough unsawed to hold your map together. In other words, make a stencil of North America. Have your pupils draw the outline from this on their slates or boards. Tell them that bare slate is going to represent water, and that land is to be built up with the material you have chosen—clay, putty, soaked paper, or whatever it is. I prefer paper, as it can be finished as nicely as you wish with water-colors, etc. Besides, if you wish to make a new start at any time, a little soaking in water will make both slate and material as good as new. The first layer of this must be pasted down, and if your foundation is a board it will be well to tack it down also. Putty is more convenient, but ruins the slate, and if you wish to color it you must use oil colors. Outline the coast first, using a very thin coat of material. Name the different parts as you come to them, and write the names on each. Ask questions as to the animals, people, etc., and mark them.

Next, cover the whole area, as thinly as possible, with your building material. Then put in your mountains. On large maps, especially if you intend them to be permanent, they should have a backbone made by driving in wire nails of the right size. In the first map, you may disregard the outlying groups, and show only the continuous chains, from Alaska to Panama, and from Labrador to Georgia, leaving breaks for the important rivers. Make the western mountains more than twice as high as the eastern. Talk a great deal about mountains—how they look, what is found there, etc., etc., omitting for the present to say much about their effect on climate, because we have not developed the idea of climate yet. Show plenty of pictures, especially if your pupils have never seen a mountain.

Draw what rivers you decide to show. Explain that the land is never perfectly level, but always slopes from the mountains to the rivers or sea. Fill up, on your maps, next to the mountains, half way to their tops, and slope this down to nothing at the rivers and sea-coasts. If you wish to put in more secondary rivers, scrape out their whole valleys, after sketching their outlines and the courses of the rivers, and explain that such a thing as absolutely level land is never found, except in very small pieces. It all slopes, one way or another. Whenever two of these slopes meet at the top we have a "divide," or "watershed." Where two join at the bottom we have a valley. All rivers flow where two slopes come together at the bottom, but there is not always a river at such a place, because very often there is not enough water to make one. Lay your map perfectly level and sprinkle water on it, and show that it all runs down into the places where you have made the rivers.

Put the island of Cuba on your map, and then call attention to the fact that the whole map forms a basin. Parts of the rim are gone in places, and in other places, especially on the south, the whole basin dips under water, but it comes up again, in Cuba and Yucatan. If you have them, show relief maps of the other continents, and point out that in all of them you can find this peculiarity: a great central plain, more or less entirely surrounded by a rim of mountains, or in some places islands. In Africa



Make out of clay on a small slate a reduced copy of **your** map. Cut this across in a straight line through the **two** highest points in the two opposite mountain systems, **and** scrape away all of your map on one side of the cut. **Tell** your pupils that a drawing of such a cutting through **of** anything is called a "section," and have them notice **the** shape of the section you have made. Draw the **typical** diagram of the continent shown on page 18, and **tell** them that usually a continent can be cut across so as **to** give a section approaching this form.

It will not be necessary to make maps of the other continents. It will do no harm to mould them hastily in clay, but with the thorough drill you have given on North America your pupils will understand them from maps. If there is a study where memorized lessons are of absolutely no value, that study is Geography. Knowledge of position, the part that is usually given in the thousands of map questions that so many children waste time over, should be taught by drawing or modelling. The drawing may be simply the filling in and naming of outline maps, or elaborate map-drawing. The remainder of the study should be topical. The teacher should show the children where and how to get the information, and assist in expression, but the pupils should each do the work for himself. It is better to study geography in this way, even if you only teach one country in the whole time devoted to it, than it is to go through the book getting high averages, and turn out pupils who, two years after, will not have any idea, for instance, whether "Ceylon" is the name of a city, river, mountain, country, cape, island, or what.

IV. DRAWING.

Drawing is of two kinds: freehand and instrumental, or, as it is often called, mechanical. In the first, we try to represent things as they appear to us, and, as its name

implies, we execute it with a free hand, not bound down by instruments or measurements. In most of our schools for the deaf, instruction is provided in this branch. This is usually done by employing a special teacher, which is doubtless the wisest and most economical way.

In the other kind of drawing, we use drawing instruments, work according to fixed mechanical rules, and usually make numerous measurements, and follow them exactly. We do not intend to represent things as they appear to the eye, but to show them accurately, as they really are. Such drawings, to be worth anything at all, must be so accurate that we can apply the scale and dividers to them, and get results as exact, or even more exact, than we can get by actually measuring the objects themselves with the foot-rule or tape-line. To almost any one who intends, as most of our pupils do, to make a living by manual labor, the immense importance of the ability to make and read such drawings, even to a moderate degree, will be readily conceded; but, in addition to this practical value, there is a very great educational value in a course of such drawing, that can hardly be estimated. It develops and exercises faculties that are only very slightly cultivated by any of the other studies in our regular courses. It has always seemed to me that our schools for the deaf have erred in giving it so little attention. I know, from actual experience in teaching several classes, that, if properly taught, deaf pupils are eager to learn it; and that those even of moderate attainments and only average mental power can acquire a very useful amount of ability to make and read such drawings. I am also more and more convinced that as early as the middle of this fifth year of the school-life of the average deaf child, boy or girl, is not too early to begin this instruction.

There are many difficulties to be overcome. We do not have teachers trained in this branch. We have no

text-book that we can put into a teacher's hands and say, "Follow this." The difficulties of providing drawing instruments accurate enough to be useful, and cheap enough to be trusted in childish hands, have until recently been very great. I believe that all these have been overcome, or soon will be; that all of our schools should have a course in instrumental drawing; and that every teacher, otherwise competent to teach a fifth-grade class, can give all the instruction and supervision necessary.

In all that I have said concerning methods of instruction, I have always tried only to offer those things that have stood the test of actual trial in the school-room, with classes of different ability; and of which I could say, "*I know.*" I cannot say this of what I have done with drawing, and so refrain from saying what *I think*, and content myself with stating my belief in the possibility and importance of beginning this work in the fifth year.

FRANCIS DEVEREUX CLARKE,
Superintendent of the Michigan School, Flint, Michigan.

A PLEA FOR A UNIFORM COURSE OF STUDY IN OUR SCHOOLS.

THERE seems to be no prescribed standard or uniform course of study in the Schools for the Deaf in this country. Most of the schools have a course. Each of these has more or less of merit; none of them, perhaps, is without its especially good points. We see no reason why one should not combine most of the virtues of all. At the same time, we would not advocate strict adherence to any iron-clad system in educating the deaf. The ground covered could be the same, though the methods might differ. All will readily admit that no course could be devised that could supersede the work of the instructor;

no course could be adopted that would contain more than an outline.

The fact is that the tendency of any prescribed course is to hamper and, in a sense, dwarf. Build walls around, and you obstruct the vision. But let us not commit the error of allowing this to prove too much. A man may eat so inordinately as to prove himself to be a glutton; gout and all sorts of disorders follow, but this would not convince those who are not gluttonous in their tendencies that it is their duty to desist from eating. So we would insist, at the outset, upon the correct use, and not the abuse, of the standard.

That the tendency of the pursuit of any specialty is to contraction—opposes breadth of development—is a self-evident proposition. The botanist, as he climbs the mountain side, sees only the flowers at his feet; the geologist, only the boulders. Each fails to take in the grandeur of the prospect, the magnificence of the scene. Yet each is a factor in the development of an important science. But may not we, as specialists, feast our eyes upon the beauties of the flowers and inhale their fragrance, study the fossils, and at the same time take in the grandeur of the mountain peaks?

Now it is perfectly clear that if a diploma is to mean anything, it ought to mean much the same thing from one school as from another, or else it will have little or no significance.

Let us inquire what conditions exist in the different States, resulting in the varying standards of acquirement in order to the securing of a diploma. Each school is supposed to have its own course of study, and, as a rule, the course is gauged by the time allowed in school by law. The term granted each pupil varies, in the different States, from seven to ten years, and in a few cases longer time is allowed.

Another fact that tends to minimize the value of

diplomas is that all schools occasionally grant diplomas to good, faithful pupils rather because they have completed the allotted time than that their attainments entitle them to the beautifully engraved, ribbon-bound documents. In order that diplomas may have the highest value, there should be, as far as practicable, a uniform course of study adopted.

To accomplish this it would be necessary that about the same time be spent in each school. It will be observed that we assume that whether we hail from the North, the South, the East, or the West, we are possessed of about the same abilities. There may be violence in this assumption; but, for the sake of argument, this will be taken for granted.

The most difficult, perhaps, of all the questions is this: What standard shall we use? The answer may be reached in various ways. We would ask this leading question: What ought we to aim to make of our pupils? All will answer, "Intelligent, moral, self-supporting citizens."

If it be true that it takes about the same qualifications to succeed in one as in another part of our country, and if we have about equal mental ability to begin with, it would seem that the time allowed to pupils in the various States should be about the same. If it be granted that speaking and hearing children are kept in school only sufficiently long to qualify them for citizenship, then their attainments, if possessed by the deaf, would seem sufficient. But how long are these more fortunate youth admitted to the public schools?

The period varies somewhat, but we may say that from twelve to eighteen years are required to complete the course in public and high schools. Should the deaf be expected to accomplish the same results in less time? If so, why? The facts are, the deaf are allowed only from seven to ten years, and in a few cases twelve years.

Now, we are not discussing the question as to whether we should maintain free high schools and free universities. We state simply the facts. From what we have said, only one conclusion can be reached, and that is that the time allowed in our schools for the deaf should be extended.

Owing to the fact, however, that the conditions will likely remain the same for years to come, what standard can we adopt? In view of the conditions that confront us, we would recommend that a united effort be made to fix the time at, say, ten years, two more to be added when specially desirable; that the course be laid out adapted to the average congenitally deaf child; that there be issued first and second grade diplomas, that of the first grade to entitle the recipient to admission to the college, thus carrying out the custom in many States of having the high schools articulate with the universities. Why should not our schools articulate with Gallaudet College?

It is true, of course, of pupils of our schools, as of those of public schools, that comparatively few of the graduates ever enter colleges or universities. So we would recommend that a second-grade certificate be granted the rank and file of our graduates.

Let the highest class of our pupils remain in school two additional years, should it be thought desirable that they be granted first-grade diplomas. In the meantime let emphasis be given to their instruction in trades—twice the usual time being given to trades, and one-half to literary work.

It is a lamentable fact that our pupils average only about five years in school in the West and the South, and perhaps only a little longer in the East.

If it be desirable that the profession take any action in the matter, we would suggest that leading educators in each State be assigned the task of contributing their views, and that these views be audited by a committee appointed for the purpose. For example, let an expert

on language in each school be requested to contribute a vocabulary of fifteen hundred to three thousand words for the primary course. So in the other branches.

These, with the aid of the courses of study in use, would form the basis for a comprehensive, yet condensed, summary and guide. Let it be remembered that no course of study could be constructed that could supersede the instructor; none could be made that would contain more than an outline.

What we have said as applied to schools proper is, if possible, more applicable to the industrial departments; for but few schools profess to have a well-developed course in their industries. Not that we would, if we could, make mechanics of all our pupils; but trades, to accomplish the greatest good, must be conducted according to a well-defined system.

It is not my intention to present an exhaustive paper, but a suggestive one. My belief, then, is that should such courses of study as those suggested be adopted, the tendency would be to add time to the course in a number of schools, to increase the number of years of average attendance, to give to the profession a better course than any institution now has, and to start our industrial departments on a more substantial basis.

JAMES N. TATE,
Superintendent of the Minnesota School, Faribault, Minnesota.

THE DUSSAUD MICROPHONOGRAPH.

[In the last volume of the *Annals*, page 264, we referred to an article in *La Nature* on the microphonograph invented by Dr. F. Dussaud, of Geneva, Switzerland. Since that article was published the instrument has been made known to the public, especially in Paris, by lectures and exhibitions before learned societies, and by numerous articles in magazines and newspapers. One of its most zealous promoters is Dr. Laborde, a distinguished physician of Paris. The following letter, addressed to Dr. Laborde by the eminent head physician of the National Institution for Deaf-Mutes at Paris, who in addition to high scientific and medical attainments possesses what few men of science have—thorough familiarity with the deaf—is taken from *Les Annales françaises des Sourds-Muets* for June, 1898. The translation is by DUDLEY W. GEORGE, M. A., Instructor in the Illinois Institution, Jacksonville, Illinois.—E. A. F.]

PARIS, *April* 28, 1898.

In the admirable lecture which you delivered yesterday at the National Institution for the Deaf you enunciated certain propositions in regard to which I do not find myself in accord with you. I had already been acquainted with them from reports of your lectures elsewhere on the education of the deaf by means of the Dussaud microphonograph. Until now I have not felt it incumbent upon me to utter criticisms of your views, but, as you have submitted them to the distinguished corps of instructors of the Institution with which I have the honor to be connected, I think it is in order to submit to you certain considerations, being well assured that your respect for the truth will prompt you to receive them in a not unfriendly spirit.

You assert that every individual who is totally deaf, who has never had hearing, is able to perceive the sounds of the microphonograph.

I fear that, in your estimate of the degree of deafness, you have depended upon the statements of individuals. We meet daily persons who claim never to have heard and who are quite surprised when we make them hear the bell of a watch placed in close contact with the ear, or

the sound of a tuning-fork set in vibration by electric apparatus.

I do not believe that a totally deaf person can hear through the Dussaud apparatus any better than through any of the other instruments which we use every day to measure the degree of hearing, for the reason that I cannot accept your theory that the acoustic centres receive sonorous impressions and transmit them to the speech centres without the intermediation of the acoustic nerves and of the ear.

A sensorial nervous centre remains inert when it is not served by the organs which are connected with them.

In order that a spoken word should be perceived by the brain, it is necessary that the ear should give, so to speak, the figured form of the word, and that the acoustic nerves should transmit the interpretation of the ear to the acoustic centres. It is only then that the speech centre can reproduce the spoken word in its turn. Your conception is, perhaps, an ingenious one, but there are no physiological data which permit us to believe it true.

By passing an electric current through the two ears you can excite the *chiasma* of the optic nerves and the labyrinths, and produce in the former a luminous sensation and in the latter the buzzing which is the acoustic sensation, but in the case of the blind it is on condition that the *chiasma* of the optic nerves be not destroyed, and with the deaf that there still remains a certain susceptibility of the labyrinths; otherwise you will accomplish nothing.

You admit that there are three classes of deaf-mutes :

I. Those whose acoustic centres have undergone an arrest of development. With those there is nothing to be hoped for.

II. Those whose acoustic nerves have been destroyed by meningitis or some other inter-cranial affection ;

III. Those who have lost the hearing by a double

labyrinthic otitis or whose ear has not been developed under normal conditions.

In these last two classes you affirm that the acoustic centres can receive impressions through the microphonograph. I can assure you that such is by no means the case, the reasons cited above being well sustained by experience.

In order to maintain the theory of the acoustic centres being put in action without the intermediation of the acoustic nerves, you are obliged to attribute special and marvellous properties to sounds produced by the microphonograph—properties hitherto unknown.

We have no reason to believe that a body vibrating through the action of an electrical apparatus, and giving the same sound as a body vibrating through any other instrument, can have special and marvellous properties.

In the code of nature all is admirable, nothing is marvellous. When we do not understand, we pursue inquiries with increased energy, and we do not believe until we have found the reason why.

I am convinced that all of your experiments with the aid of the microphonograph have been made upon individuals who have retained a certain degree of sensibility of the ear and the integrity of the acoustic nerves. A more attentive examination will certainly convince you of it.

The Dussaud microphonograph has the advantage of being capable of reproducing articulated words, a thing which no other instrument can do, but it reproduces them in a sort of Punch and Judy tone of voice which it is preferable not to inculcate, for in this respect it is greatly inferior to the human voice.

Auricular education is much less advanced than you seem to think. So far, it has not actually restored hearing to a single person.

A very deaf person, who cannot distinguish the articulate sounds which constitute speech, finds himself, if I

may use the comparison, in the situation of a traveller transported into a country whose language he does not understand. His ear gradually gets accustomed to what at first appeared to be only a noise, and the meaning of the words grows upon him little by little. By repeating to him the simple parts of language until he comes to apprehend their meaning, one will finally make him understand sounds which had previously no meaning to him at all. What was only a vague noise becomes a perception more or less distinct, and at the end of a certain time the deaf person becomes able to communicate through the ear—to an extent that is, however, always unsatisfactory. Those who claim to have obtained better results are misled.

The Dussaud microphonograph claims not only to relieve the fatigue of the teacher, but to give practice to the ear of several persons simultaneously. In a lecture which you delivered at the home of a man of the world who is a benefactor of the deaf you showed us rows of telephones on a long table to serve for a large sized class of pupils.

Experience will not fail to show you that there are no two persons whose aptitudes of the ear are exactly alike. One hears only sharp sounds, another only deep ones, while he who can hear the striking of a repeating watch is unable to hear the shout of the human voice or the ringing of a bell.

It will be impossible for you to get together a class of individuals whose peculiarities of hearing are sufficiently alike to admit of their being handled collectively, and I fear that the teachers will prefer to educate them individually. The microphonograph will, it is conceded, supply the place of the teacher's voice for each individual pupil, and this will be an advantage if only the nasal tone of the instrument can be done away with.

Shorn of the prestige which you have sought to bestow

upon the instrument, you should strive energetically to remedy this defect. Let us hope that we shall not meet with disappointment, and that our teachers will not again prefer to have recourse to the simple voice method, to which, after practising with instruments for some time, they have returned, abandoning the artificial aids to hearing they at first made use of.

Please accept, my dear colleague and friend, the assurance of my sentiments of friendship.

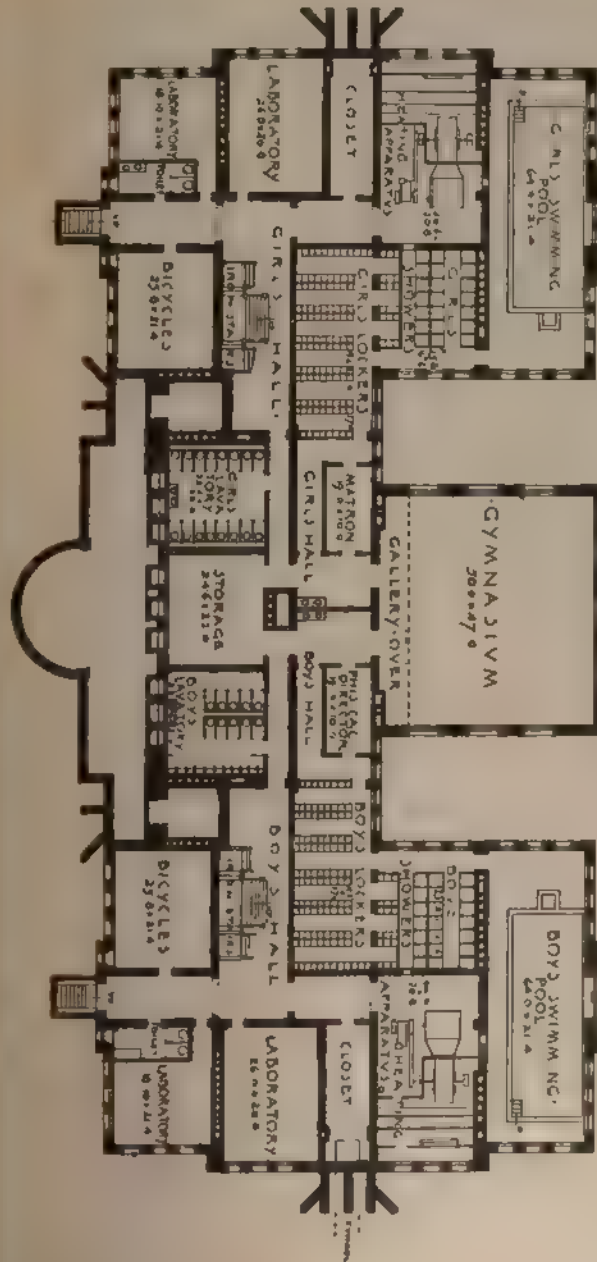
DR. LADREIT DE LACHARRIÈRE,
Head Physician of the National Institution, Paris, France.

THE NEW SCHOOL BUILDING OF THE OHIO INSTITUTION.*

THE new school building of the Ohio Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb is situated on the west side of the grounds, with the main front to the east, and in size is 240 feet north and south by about 110 feet east and west. Including the basement, it is four stories high, the basement being finished for use in as thorough a manner as any other part of the building. The materials used in construction are limestone for foundations, common brick for inside walls and partitions, pressed brick and cut stone for exterior facing, and slate for the roof. The materials used and the construction throughout are of the very best character, all floors being carried on brick walls, and very few wood partitions being used in the entire building. All outside steps are of limestone; the vestibules are floored with marble, and the inside steps from the vestibule to the level of the first floor are of marble; the main stairways from the basement to the third story are of cast iron, the treads covered with rubber to prevent noise.

* Written for the *Annals* at the request of the Editor.

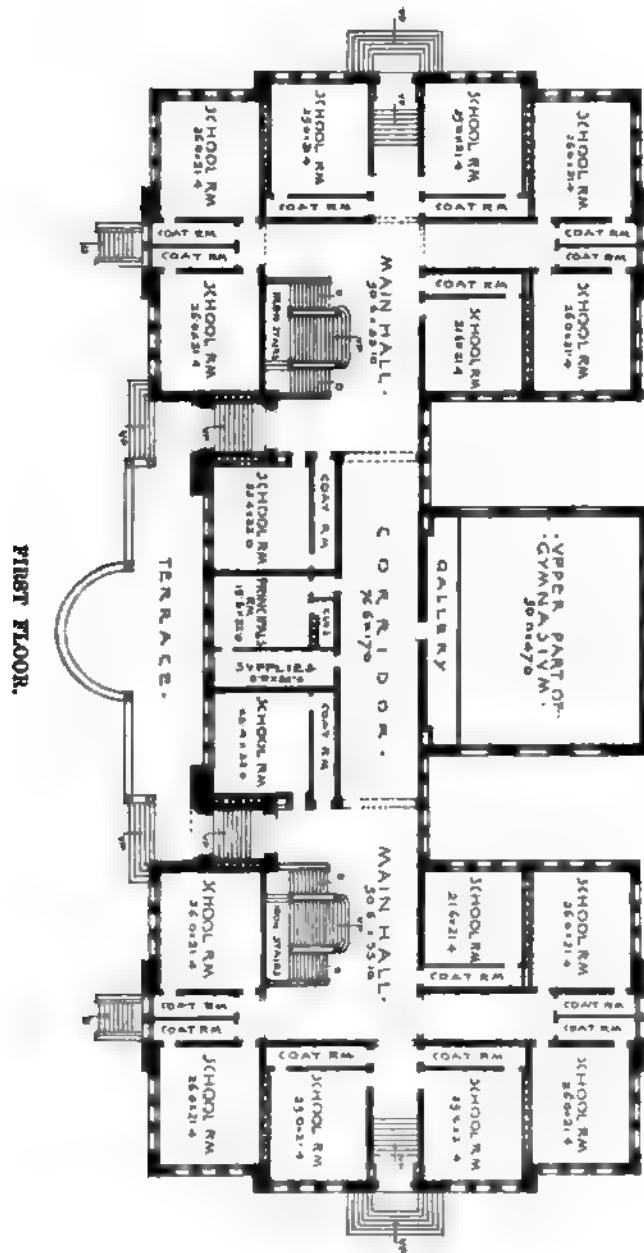
BASEMENT.



34 *The New School Building of the Ohio Institution.*

The departments provided for in this building are those which come in direct connection with the school work. Having in the main building at the present time a chapel of sufficient size, no provision has been made in the new building for an assembly-room, but upon examination of the plans it will be found that everything pertaining to and coming in close touch with the school work, such as physical culture, the various branches of art work, including painting, modelling, and wood-carving, as well as rooms for library and museum, art-exhibition rooms, and the school-rooms, laboratories, principal's office, and ward-robes have all been carefully provided for.

The principal part of the basement is devoted to physical culture and laboratories for experimental work. The main outside entrances to the basement are in the centre of the north and south wings, on the east side, and from these entrances the basement is reached by a short flight of stone steps. The basement floor being only about five feet below grade on the east side and entirely above grade on the west side, and having a ceiling 10 feet in the clear, this portion of the building is as well lighted as any of the upper stories. It is divided into two distinct portions which are exact duplicates, the north half being used for the boys and the south half for the girls. The gymnasium is the only room which is used in common, and this is done only for the reason that it can be used at different times by the boys and girls in separate classes, while the expense of building and equipping two gymnasiums would be considerably more than would be justified while the one room can be as conveniently situated as is here shown. The gymnasium is in a semi-detached wing of the building and is only carried up one story high above the basement, thus avoiding the annoyance from vibration, and making it practicable to use the room at any time during the day, even while the school-rooms are occupied and all other departments of the work progressing as

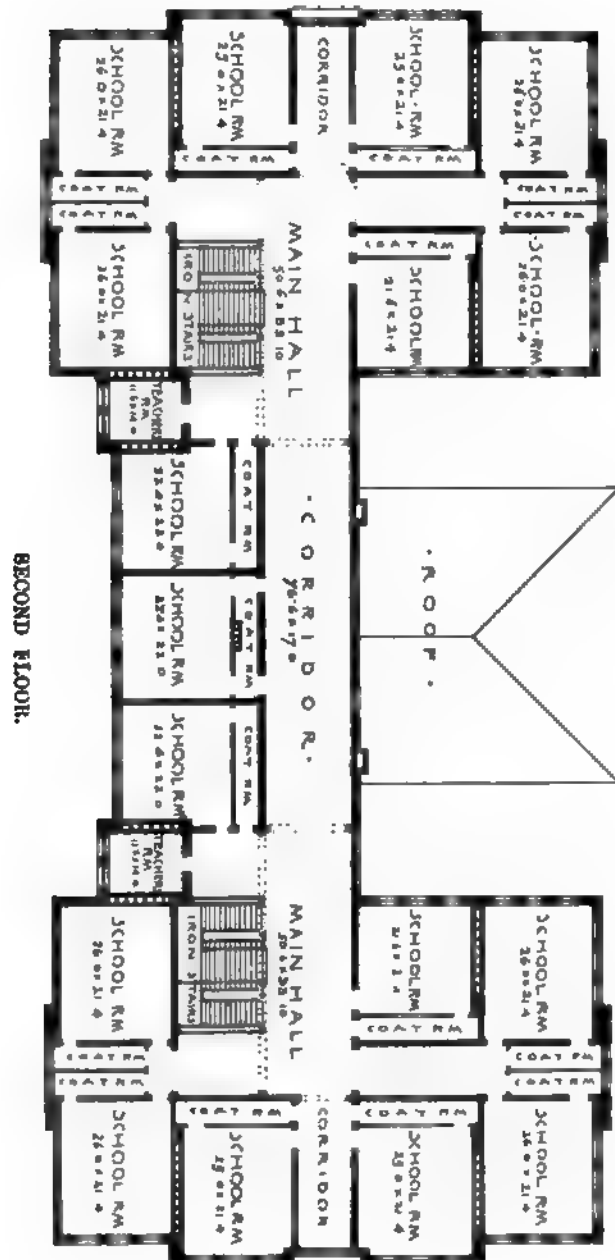


36 *The New School Building of the Ohio Institution.*

usual. The room is 47 feet by 50 feet in the clear and 20 feet in height from floor to trusses, giving an abundance of space for all kinds of apparatus and for training classes in physical culture. In close touch with the gymnasium on either side are the matron's and physical director's rooms, making it necessary for every pupil entering the gymnasium to pass one of these offices. The shower-baths, swimming-pools, and locker-rooms are directly connected with the gymnasium on either side by the corridors, provision being made for about 300 lockers, 21 shower-baths, and a swimming-pool 18 feet by 34 feet on each side. Near the main stairways on each side are the water-closets and lavatories, the room between these being used for the storage of the gymnasium apparatus. Near the outside entrances to the basement at the north and south ends of the building are the chemical and physical laboratories, and on the opposite side of the hall from these the rooms for bicycles.

Near the centre at the north and south ends of the building are the fans and coils for heating and ventilating. The heating and ventilating are by what is known as the blast system, the most approved modern apparatus being used. The fresh air is taken into the basement through the windows, passes first through a tempering coil, then through a dry screen and a wet screen to remove the dust and impurities, thence into the fan, and is driven by the fan into the rooms throughout the building through a double system of ducts placed under the floor. Ducts are provided for tempered fresh air as well as for hot air, so that the building can be ventilated by the fans at all seasons of the year.

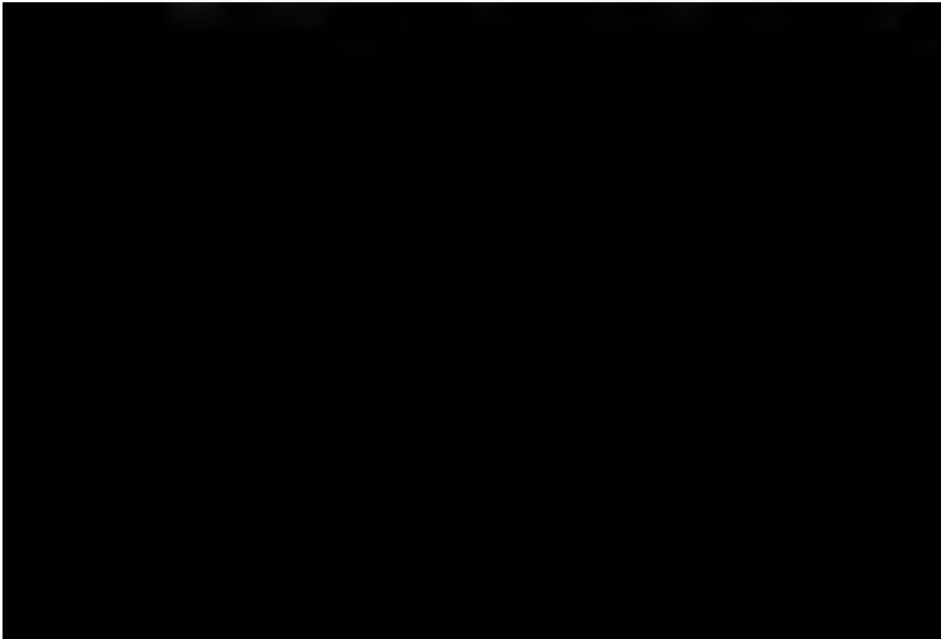
All partitions for shower-baths, water-closets, etc., throughout the building are of white marble, supported on nickel-plated fittings. All plumbing fixtures throughout are of the best quality, and the showers and wash-bowls are supplied with both hot and cold water by

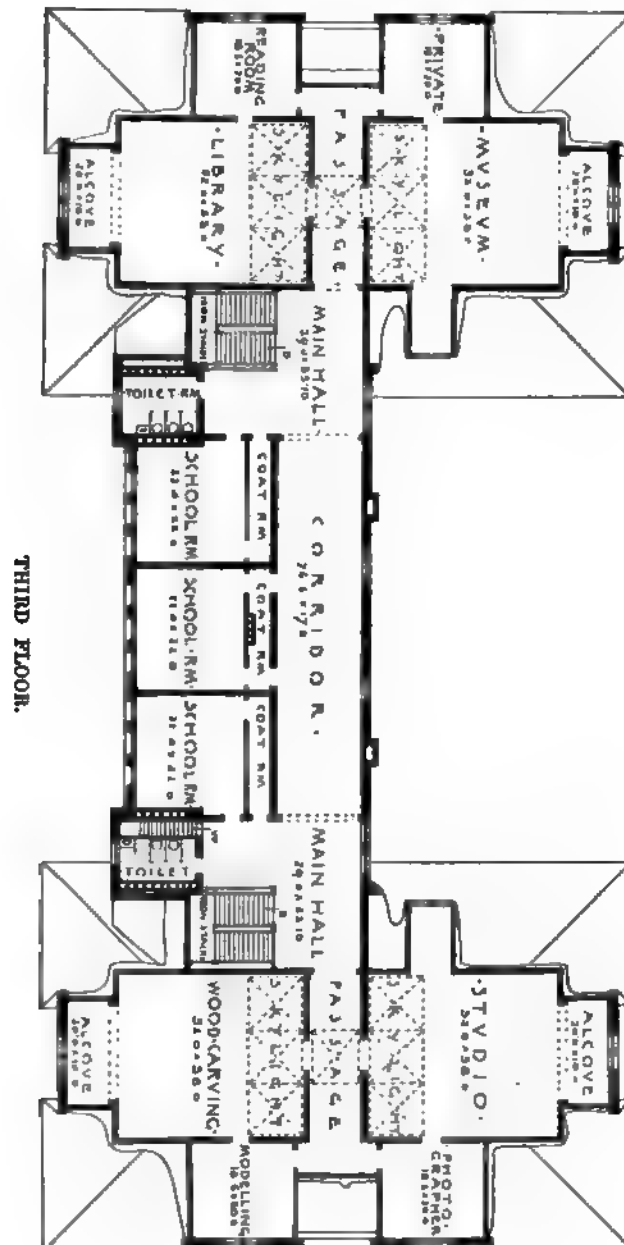


circulating pipes which are brought through a tunnel from the main boiler-house. Steam is furnished from the main boiler-house, pipes being carried through a tunnel and connected with the coils in the fan-room.

The floors throughout the basement, except in the gymnasium, are of artificial stone. The gymnasium floor is 2-inch quarter sawed oak. All rooms throughout the basement that are used for lavatories, bath-rooms, locker-rooms, laboratories, etc., are plastered with Portland cement mortar, making the walls impervious to moisture.

The first story of the building above the grade is devoted entirely to school-rooms and cloak-rooms, each school-room having its own separate cloak-room, and the principal's office a closet and supply room. The principal's office is located in the centre of the building, on the east front. The two main entrances to the first story are in the east side, through the base of the towers. Passing into the building through these entrances we come immediately to the large stair halls, which are 34 feet by 52 feet in size, and contain the iron staircases extending from the basement to the third story. These stair halls are connected by a corridor 17 feet wide, extending through the building to the entrances at the north and south ends. Each of the school-rooms has its own





THIRD FLOOR.

40 *The New School Building of the Ohio Institution.*

teachers. In the central portion of the third story are three school-rooms which are to be used for the high school, and in the north and south wings of the building the space under the high roof is to be used for the various departments of the art work, library, and museum. In the north wing are located the photograph gallery, modeling-room, wood-carving room, and studio, and in the south wing the museum, library, and private reading-room. The main connecting corridor between the north and south wings in the third story is constructed with a large expanse of plain wall to be used for the purpose of an exhibition hall, and is well lighted by skylights at each end. The toilet-rooms and water-closets are provided for the third story in the towers. These towers, which to the ordinary observer might appear to be simply for ornamentation, are made of practical use to the building, as it will be noticed that the ventilating shafts are brought to them from all parts of the building, and they are made the outlet for the foul air from all the rooms, thus serving the double purpose of ventilators and architectural features.

The building will be lighted throughout by electric lights supplied with a current from the central plant.

In architectural style the building is a simple, straightforward treatment of the French Gothic, the two masses at the north and south ends being emphasized and drawn together by the connecting body of the main building, which is further emphasized by the towers in which the main entrances are located, these towers being carried to a height of about 108 feet. The exterior facing, as above stated, is of pressed brick. That used for the basement and for the quoins is a light gray, and the body of the building a rich buff. The roof will be of green slate, and the ornamental trimmings of the light blue Berea sandstone. The color effect of the entire mass will be extremely pleasing.

J. W. JONES,
Superintendent of the Ohio Institution, Columbus, Ohio.

OUTLINE COURSES IN MANNERS AND MORALS.

THAT the teacher of deaf children is responsible, more than any one else, for their manners and morals is a proposition that cannot be denied or evaded.

The lack of a ready means of communication between those natural teachers, the parents, and a deaf child precludes everything but the crudest instruction at home. Hence, the average deaf child enters school with its manners and morals practically unformed.

These unformed creatures are placed in our hands to develop and mould. We have them with us for five hours of the day, nine months of the year, during a course of ten years, the most formative years of a human being's life. No one else has such close and continuous relation with the children. No one understands them better, or is able to make them understand better. They come to us immature beings; they leave us on the verge of manhood and womanhood, with their habits of thought and action practically established for all time.

If we admit our great responsibility in this matter of manners and morals, as admit it we must, the next question is whether we do all that we ought, all that we can, to acquit ourselves well of the responsibility.

Any one who has had experience in the training of hearing children knows the almost countless repetitions of "Do this" and "Don't do that" which bestrew the pathway of such children to morality and decorum.

Such repetition is a manifest impossibility in the case of deaf children. Moreover, neither inside the school-room nor outside will a sufficiency of occasions arise for teaching the children all that they should know of manners and morals.

Frequent "talks" to the pupils are excellent as far as

they go, or rather as far as they *stay*, for nine-tenths of such instruction goes in at one eye and out at the other.

How many teachers in the profession, recognizing the importance of careful and thorough instruction in manners and morals, set aside a regular time for such teaching, and have lessons on those subjects written out, copied, studied, and recited, as in other branches of learning?

A branch of education that is left to take its chances at odd moments and on special occasions is hardly likely to be very well mastered by our pupils.

The object of this paper is to offer a suggestion looking towards more systematic instruction in manners and morals in our schools. We must bear in mind that deaf children have little opportunity of learning manners and morals outside of our influence. They must stand or fall mainly by what they get from us.

I would suggest that a regular time be devoted to teaching manners and morals, with lessons written by the teacher, suited to the understanding of the pupils, which lessons are to be copied and studied by the pupils. And this should be done, not in any particular year or years, but every year, by every teacher, throughout the whole course.

I would teach manners and morals separately. The two do not necessarily go together. Good manners are a kind of outward polish, while good morals are rather a fine interior finish. A person of good manners may have very objectionable morals, while a person of the best morals may eat with his knife and drink his coffee from a saucer.

At the end of this paper will be found an outline for a ten-year course in manners, and a similar one in morals, in accordance with the idea just suggested.

Written lessons are not recommended for the first and second years. The instruction during that period can, with better advantage, be confined to admonitions and

actions, with words and short sentences expressive of what is right and proper, and of what is wrong and improper.

The third, fourth, and fifth years have the same outline ; but it is expected that the teacher of each grade will adapt the lessons to the understanding of the pupils. The same can be said of the outline for the remaining years. While each year covers practically the same ground, the language and illustrations of each succeeding year should grow with the pupils' mental growth. When the most advanced classes are of superior intelligence, some good text-book on ethics may be used with advantage in the place of lessons written by the teacher.

The question may be asked, How much time ought we to give to this systematic study of manners and morals ? Our time in the class-room is pretty well occupied as it is. But there are certainly some things on our schedules of less importance to our pupils than good manners and good morals, and which can be sacrificed occasionally without detriment. One hour a week devoted to these regular lessons in manners, and the same time to morals, would be sufficient. This would give opportunity for twenty lessons on each subject during the year, with ample time for review.

The lessons should be copied into substantial notebooks, with pen and ink. They will be useful reference books for the pupils after leaving school.

These lessons, properly prepared and studied, will furnish occasion for a great deal of practical language work.

The deaf boys and girls who graduate from our schools compare favorably in character and courtesy with hearing boys and girls from corresponding classes of society. But I believe that the spirit which actuates teachers of the deaf is not to attain the "good enough," but always the "better," and if there is any method or system that will enable us to strengthen the characters and perfect the

44 *Outline Courses in Manners and Morals.*

manners of our charges, we are ready to receive it and adopt it. It is with such a spirit of seeking after the "better" that this paper and the accompanying outlines are submitted to the profession.

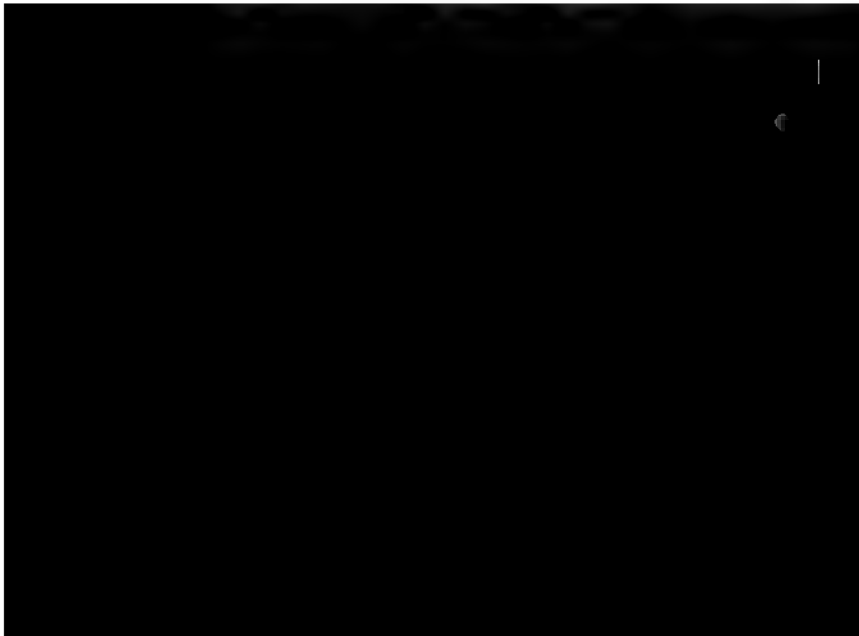
OUTLINE COURSE IN GOOD MANNERS FOR PRIMARY PUPILS.

First and Second Years.

The instruction during these two years must be almost wholly in the line of example and practice. Plenty of occasions will arise in the school-room for the teacher to make corrections that will lay the foundation of future good behavior.

Give careful attention to

Correct positions in sitting, standing, and walking,
Manner of entering and leaving the room,
Behavior in the halls,
Dragging or shuffling of the feet,
Neatness of person and clothing,
Grimaces of the face while talking,
Biting finger-nails, picking the nose, scratching
the head, etc.,
Snuffing, hawking, and spitting,



is not too early to teach the boys to lift their hats to ladies and to the Superintendent.

As soon as the pupils' command of language justifies it, give them a number of written precepts to learn, such as

Brush your clothes,
Polish your shoes,
Comb your hair,
Clean your finger-nails,
Sit up,
Do not drag your feet,
Do not make faces,
Do not scratch your head,
Do not bite your finger-nails,
etc., etc.

OUTLINE COURSE IN GOOD MANNERS FOR PRIMARY CLASSES.

Third to Sixth Years.

- | | |
|--------|---|
| Lesson | I. The Value of Good Manners. |
| Lesson | II. Personal Manners.—Cleanliness of Person and Clothing. |
| Lesson | III. Personal Manners.—Personal Habits. |
| Lesson | IV. “ “ Clothing. |
| Lesson | V. Good Manners at the Table.—Position. Use of Napkin. |
| Lesson | VI. Good Manners at the Table.—Use of Knife, Fork, Spoon, etc. |
| Lesson | VII. Good Manners at the Table.—How to eat and drink. |
| Lesson | VIII. Good Manners at the Table.—Talk. Miscellaneous suggestions. |
| Lesson | IX. Good Manners in the School-room. |
| Lesson | X. Good Manners on the Playground. |
| Lesson | XI. Good Manners on the Street. |

- Lesson XII. Good Manners at Church, or at other
 Public Meetings.
- Lesson XIII. Good Manners at Home.
- Lesson XIV. Good Manners while Visiting.
- Lesson XV. Good Manners at Parties.
- Lesson XVI. Good Manners in Talking.
- Lesson XVII. Good Manners in Letter-writing.
- Lesson XVIII. Good Manners to Older People.
- Lesson XIX. General Suggestions.

OUTLINE COURSE IN GOOD MANNERS FOR ADVANCED GRADES.

Sixth to Tenth Years.

- Lesson I. The Value of Good Manners.
- Lesson II. Good Manners Relating to the Person.—
 Cleanliness of Person and Clothing.
- Lesson III. Good Manners Relating to the Person.—
 Personal Habits.
- Lesson IV. Good Manners Relating to the Person.—
 Dress.
- Lesson V. Good Manners at the Table.—Position.
 Use of the Napkin.
- Lesson VI. Good Manners at the Table.—Use of
 Knife, Fork, Spoon, etc.
- Lesson VII. Good Manners at the Table.—Manner
 of eating. Manner of receiving and
 offering service.
- Lesson VIII. Good Manners at the Table.—Conver-
 sation. Miscellaneous suggestions.
- Lesson IX. Good Manners on the Street and in Pub-
 lic Places.
- Lesson X. Good Manners in Society.—Introduc-
 tions. Shaking Hands.
- Lesson XI. Good Manners in Society.—Parties, Re-
 ceptions, etc.

- Lesson XII. Good Manners in Society.—Calling.
Lesson XIII. Good Manners while Visiting.
Lesson XIV. Good Manners at Home.
Lesson XV. Good Manners in Conversation.
Lesson XVI. Good Manners in Letter-Writing.—
Friendly Letters.
Lesson XVII. Good Manners in Letter-Writing.—
Business Letters.
Lesson XVIII. Good Manners in Letter-Writing.—
Social Forms.
Lesson XIX. General Suggestions.

OUTLINE COURSE IN GOOD MORALS FOR PRIMARY PUPILS.

First and Second Years.

Make the children as bright as possible, and discourage frowns and peevishness.

Teach attention, respect, and order. Insist on prompt obedience.

Inculcate kindness and gentleness to one another. Discourage selfishness.

Teach the principles of kindness to animals.

When the pupils learn adjectives, make the distinction clear between *good* and *bad*, *kind* and *unkind*, *right* and *wrong*, etc.

Miss no opportunity to show approval of what is right and good, and disapproval of what is wrong and bad.

When an accident occurs that cannot be helped, such as a fall, teach the child to bear it bravely, without crying, if possible.

Teach the principles of honesty in little things.

Encourage truthfulness in every way, and show the utmost disapproval of falsehood.

Teach the rudiments of duties to parents.

As soon as possible, embody the preceding principles in the form of simple written precepts, such as

We must be happy,
 We must not be cross,
 We must obey our teacher,
 We must obey our parents,
 We must be kind,
 We must not steal,
 We must not tell lies,
 etc., etc.

OUTLINE COURSE IN GOOD MORALS FOR PRIMARY CLASSES.

Third to Sixth Years.

- | | |
|--------|---|
| Lesson | I. Why We Should be Good. |
| Lesson | II. Honesty. |
| Lesson | III. Truthfulness. |
| Lesson | IV. Kindness and Gentleness to One
Another and to Animals. |
| Lesson | V. Good Nature. |
| Lesson | VI. Contentment. Evils of Fault-finding
and Grumbling. |
| Lesson | VII. Unselfishness. Generosity. |
| Lesson | VIII. Tale-bearing. Slander. |
| Lesson | IX. Charity. |
| Lesson | X. Courage. |
| Lesson | XI. Faithfulness. Honor. |
| Lesson | XII. Making Amends for Wrong. |
| Lesson | XIII. The Value of a Good Name. |
| Lesson | XIV. Self-Support. |
| Lesson | XV. Self-Control. |
| Lesson | XVI. Temperance, Care of Health, etc. |
| Lesson | XVII. Duties to Parents. |
| Lesson | XVIII. Duties to Law. |
| Lesson | XIX. Duties to Other People. |
| Lesson | XX. Duties to God. |

OUTLINE COURSE IN GOOD MORALS FOR ADVANCED GRADES.

Sixth to Tenth Years.

- | | |
|--------|---|
| Lesson | I. The Value of Good Morals. |
| Lesson | II. Right and Wrong. |
| Lesson | III. Our Duties to Inferior Animals. |
| Lesson | IV. Our Duties to Ourselves.—Self-Support. |
| Lesson | V. Our Duties to Ourselves.—Self-Defence. |
| Lesson | VI. Our Duties to Ourselves.—Self-Control. |
| Lesson | VII. Our Duties to Ourselves.—Self-Improvement. |
| Lesson | VIII. Duties relating to the Family.—Married Life. |
| Lesson | IX. Duties Relating to the Family.—Duties of Parents to Children. |
| Lesson | X. Duties Relating to the Family.—Duties of Children to Parents. |
| Lesson | XI. Duties Relating to the Family.—Duties of Brothers and Sisters. |
| Lesson | XII. Duties Relating to Our Fellow-Men.—Life. |
| Lesson | XIII. Duties Relating to Our Fellow-Men.—Liberty. |
| Lesson | XIV. Duties Relating to Our Fellow-Men.—Property. |
| Lesson | XV. Duties Relating to Our Fellow-Men.—Reputation. |
| Lesson | XVI. Duties Relating to Our Fellow-Men.—Truthfulness. |
| Lesson | XVII. Duties Relating to the State.—Duties of the Citizen to the State. |

Lesson XVIII. Duties Relating to the State.—Duties of the State to the Citizen.

Lesson XIX. Duties Relating to the State.—Duties of One State to Another.

Lesson XX. Duties to God.—Obedience.

Lesson XXI. Duties to God.—Reverence.

Lesson XXII. Duties to God.—Worship.

Below are a few specimen lessons in manners and morals, written for different grades, which may show more clearly the ideas set forth in the preceding outlines :

LESSON III.

Personal Habits.

(Prepared for Fourth-Year Pupils.)

We must try to avoid all impolite habits. A lady-like girl and a gentlemanly boy are very attractive, and everybody will love them.

Boys must never smoke or chew tobacco. This is a very dirty habit.

We should never use violent or impolite signs. We must not make faces, or noises in our throats, while we are signing.

We should always sit up straight, and walk with our shoulders back and our heads up. We must never drag our feet, but lift them from the ground.

It is impolite to scratch the head before people, or to pick our noses with our fingers. We must always have handkerchiefs, and use them. We must not pick our teeth or bite our finger-nails in company.

We must not yawn and stretch ourselves before others. Never spit on the floor or sidewalk.

People are always watching us, and if we have impolite habits they will notice them. A polite boy or girl will have many friends.

LESSON V.

Good Manners at the Table.

(Prepared for Seventh or Eighth Year Pupils.)

If we wish to be considered ladies and gentlemen, we must be very careful how we behave while at the table. People are quick to notice faults in our manners while we are eating.

Position.

Sit with the body a few inches from the edge of the table. Sit erect. Do not loaf in your chair. Do not stretch your feet out under the table.

Bend slightly forward when you put food into your mouth, so that your mouth will be above your plate.

Do not rest your elbows or hands upon the table. Do not spread your arms out while you are cutting food. Keep your elbows close to your sides.

Use of the Napkin.

The proper place for the napkin is upon the lap, not tucked under the chin. When you use it, do not show the whole of it to everybody at the table. Use only a small part of it. Wipe your mouth before and after drinking.

When you have finished eating, fold your napkin neatly and place it by your plate. But do not do this while others at the table are still eating. If you are eating in a hotel or restaurant, you need not fold your napkin, but may place it loosely by your plate.

If you have to cough or sneeze while at the table, turn your head aside and cover your mouth with your napkin.

LESSON II.

Honesty.

(Prepared for Fourth-Year Pupils.)

God says to us in the Bible, "Thou shalt not steal." We must be honest because we want to obey God and become good men and women.

Perhaps some one thinks that he can steal, and nobody will see him. But God sees him, and his conscience will trouble him, and he will be punished. He will know that he is a thief, and he will feel very much ashamed in his heart.

We must not steal any little thing. We must not take a crayon or a pencil from the school-room, or a little thing from anybody. If we begin to steal little things, by and by we shall become bolder, and begin to steal larger things. Then at last we may be caught and put into prison. Most great thieves began by stealing little things.

A thief can never be honored and successful in life. All good people will despise and shun him.

If you find anything that is not yours, always try to find the owner and give it back to him. It is the same as stealing to keep things that you find, if you do not try to look for the owner.

LESSON III.

Our Duties to Inferior Animals.

(Prepared for Seventh or Eighth Year Pupils.)

Animals are useful to man by furnishing him with food, clothing, and other things, and by helping him work. It is right for us to make use of them in this way. But we have no right to treat them cruelly or give them unnecessary pain.

When we keep domestic animals, such as horses, cattle, dogs, chickens, etc., it is our duty to take good care of them and to treat them well. We must give them plenty to eat and drink, and have a warm place for them during cold weather. They will be more useful to us if we feed them well and treat them well.

It is cruel to leave horses standing in the streets during winter, without blankets on ; to make them draw too heavy loads ; to check them up too tight ; and to cut their tails off short.

We should never kill animals without a good reason. We may kill them if we need them for food, or for some other useful purpose. We may kill them if they attack us, or if they are troublesome and injurious to us or our property.

Hunting and fishing for pleasure are not wicked, if we eat or sell what we kill or catch. But it is cruel and wicked to kill animals just for sport, and leave them.

When we do kill animals, it is our duty to do it as quickly and painlessly as possible.

In the Sermon on the Mount, Jesus said, "Blessed are the merciful ; for they shall obtain mercy."

NOTE.—In the preparation of these outlines, material assistance was rendered by Miss Agatha M. Tiegel, in the part relating to primary classes.

JAMES L. SMITH,
Instructor in the Minnesota School, Faribault, Minnesota.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1898-'99.
A.—PUBLIC SCHOOLS (NOT INCLUDING DAY-SCHOOLS) IN THE UNITED STATES.

Name.	Location.	Date of opening.	Chief Executive Officer.
1 American School for the Deaf	Hartford, Conn.	1817	Job Williams, M. A., L. H. D., Principal.
2 New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.	New York, N. Y. (a)	1818	Enoch Henry Carrier, M. A., do.
3 Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.	Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.	1820	A. L. E. Crouter, M. A., LL. D., Sup't.
4 Kentucky Institution for the Education of Deaf-Mutes.	Danville, Boyle Co., Ky.	1823	Augustus Rogers, M. A., Sup't.
5 Ohio Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.	Columbus, Ohio.	1829	J. W. Jones, M. A., do.
6 Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind.	Staunton, Va.	1839	William A. Bowles, do.
7 Indiana Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.	Indianapolis, Ind.	1844	Richard Otto Johnson, do.
8 Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School.	Knoxville, Tenn.	1845	Thomas L. Moses, Principal.
9 North Carolina Institution for Education of the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind	Raleigh, N. C.	1845	John E. Ray, M. A., Principal.
10 Illinois Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.	Jacksonville, Ill.	1846	Joseph C. Gordon, M. A., Ph. D., Sup't.
11 Georgia School for the Deaf	Cave Spring, Ga.	1846	Wesley O. Connor, Principal.
12 South Carolina Inst'n for the Education of the Deaf and the Blind.	Cedar Spring, S. C.	1849	Newton F. Walker, Superintendent.
13 Missouri School for the Deaf and Dumb.	Fulton, Callaway Co., Mo.	1851	Noble B. McKee, M. A., do.
14 Louisiana Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.	Baton Rouge, La.	1852	John Jastremski, M. D., do.
15 Wisconsin School for the Deaf.	Delavan, Walworth Co., Wis.	1852	John W. Swiler, M. A., do.
16 Michigan School for the Deaf.	Flint, Mich.	1854	Francis D. Clarke, M. A., C.E., do.
17 Mississippi Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.	Jackson, Miss.	1854	J. R. Dobyns, M. A., do.
18 Iowa School for the Deaf.	Council Bluffs, Iowa.	1855	Henry W. Rother, Superintendent.
19 Texas Deaf and Dumb Asylum.	Austin, Texas.	1857	A. T. Rose, Superintendent.
20 Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.	Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.	1857	E. M. Gallaudet, Ph. D., LL. D., Pres't.
A. Kendall School for the Deaf.do.	1857	James Denison, M. A., Principal.
B. Gallaudet College.do.	1864	E. M. Gallaudet, Ph. D., LL. D., Pres't.
21 Alabama Institute for the Deaf.	Talladega, Ala.	1858	Joseph H. Johnson, M. A., Principal.
22 California Institution for the Deaf and the Blind.	Berkeley, Alameda Co., Cal.	1860	Warring Wilkinson, M. A., L. H. D., do.
23 Kansas School for the Deaf.	Olathe, Kansas.	1861	A. A. Stewart, Superintendent.
24 Le Conte-x St. Mary's Inst'n for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes.	Buffalo, N. Y. (125 Edward St.) (b)	1861	Sister Mary Anne Burke, Principal.
25 Minnesota School for the Deaf.	Faribault, Rice Co., Minn.	1863	James N. Tate, M. A., Sup't.
26 New York Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes.	New York, N. Y. (904-922 Lexington Av.)	1867	H. F. Mitchell, Acting Principal.
27 Clarke School for the Deaf	Northampton, Mass.	1867	Miss Caroline A. Yale, LL. D., Principal.
28 Arkansas Deaf-Mute Institute.	Little Rock, Ark.	1869	Frank B. Yates, Superintendent.
29 Maryland School for the Deaf and Dumb.	Frederick City, Md.	1869	Chas. W. Fly, M. A., Principal.

30	Nebraska Institute for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Omaha, Neb.....	1869	H. E. Dawes, Principal.
31	St. Joseph's Institute for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes.....	Forillham, N. Y., (c).....	1869	Adele Pertrouno, President.
32	West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and the Blind.....	Romney, Hampshire Co., W. Va.....	1870	James T. Rucker, Principal.
33	Myatic Oral School for the Deaf.....	Myatic, Conn.....	1870	Miss Ella Scott, Principal.
34	Oregon School for Deaf-Mutes.....	Salem, Oregon.....	1870	Rev. P. S. Knight, Ph. D., Sup't. { Frederick D. Morrison, M. A., Sup't. John F. Bledsoe, M. A., Res't Prin.
35	Maryland School for the Colored Blind and Deaf.....	Baltimore, Md. (649 W. Saratoga St.) ...	1872	D. C. Dudley, M. A., Sup't.
36	Colorado School for the Deaf and the Blind.....	Colorado Springs, El Paso Co., Colo.....	1874	Edward Beverly Nelson, M. A., Principal.
37	Central New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.....	Rome, Oneida Co., N. Y.....	1875	William N. Burt, M. A., Principal.
38	Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Edgewood Park, Allegheny Co., Pa.....	1876	Z. F. Westervelt, LL. D., Sup't & Prin.
39	Western New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.....	Rochester, N. Y. (945 N. St. Paul St.)...	1876	Miss Elizabeth R. Taylor, Principal.
40	Maine School for the Deaf.....	Portland, Me. (79-85 Spring St.).....	1876	Miss Laura DeL. Richards, Principal.
41	Rhode Island Institute for the Deaf.....	Providence, R. I. (184 East Ave.).....	1876	Miss Nellie H. Swett, do.
42	New England Industrial School for Deaf-Mutes.....	Beverly, Mass.....	1879	James Simpson, Superintendent.
43	South Dakota School for Deaf-Mutes.....	Sioux Falls, Minnehaha Co., South Dak.	1880	Miss Mary B. C. Brown, Principal.
44	Pennsylvania Oral School for the Deaf.....	Scranton, Pa.....	1883	Weston Jenkins, M. A., Principal.
45	New Jersey School for Deaf-Mutes.....	Trenton, N. J.....	1883	Frank W. Metcalf, D. B., Sup't.
46	Utah State School for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Ogden, Utah.....	1884	Edward C. Rider, Principal.
47	Northern New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.....	Malone, Franklin Co., N. Y.....	1884	Rev. Frederick Pasco, Superintendent.
48	Florida Institute for the Deaf and the Blind.....	St. Augustine, Fla.....	1885	Lars M. Larson, B. A., Superintendent.
49	New Mexico School for the Deaf and the Blind.....	Santa Fé, N. M.....	1885	James Watson, Director.
50	Washington School for Defective Youth.....	Vancouver, Wash.....	1886	S. J. Jenkins, Superintendent.
51	Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute for Colored Youth.....	Austin, Tex.....	1887	Miss Mary McGuire, Prin. and Sup't.
52	Albany Home School for the Oral Instruction of the Deaf.....	Pine Hills, Albany, N. Y.....	1889	Dwight F. Bangs, Sup't.
53	Deaf and Dumb Asylum (of North Dakota).....	Devils Lake, Ramsey Co., North Dak.....	1890	Miss Mary S. Garrett, Principal.
54	Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age.....	Philadelphia, Pa. (d).....	1892	E. S. Tillinghast, M. A., Sup't.
55	Montana Deaf and Dumb Asylum.....	Boulder, Montana.....	1893	E. McKay Goodwin, M. A., Sup't.
56	North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Morganton, Burke Co., N. C.....	1894	H. C. Beamer, Contractor and Sup't.
57	Oklahoma Institute for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Guthrie, Oklahoma.....	1898	
57	Public Schools (not including Day-Schools).			
29	Public Day-Schools. (See page 60.)			
15	Denominational and Private Schools. (See page 63.)			
101	Schools in the United States.			

(a) Washington Heights, 163d Street and Eleventh Ave. (b) There is a branch school at the corner of Main Street and Forest Ave. (c) This Institution has three branches; one situated at Westchester, another at Fordham (772 East 188th Street), and another at Brooklyn (113 Buffalo Ave.). (d) Belmont Ave., cor. Monument Ave.

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TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1898-'99—Continued.
PUBLIC SCHOOLS (NOT INCLUDING DAY-SCHOOLS) IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Name.	Vacation.	How Supported.	Value of buildings and grounds.	Expenditure last fiscal year.	No. vols. in library.
				For supplies.	For buildings and grounds.
1 American Asylum.....	Last Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Endowment and N. E. States.....	\$250,000	\$119,372	2,000
2 New York Institution.....	Second Tuesday in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	526,000	\$13,264	7,391
3 Pennsylvania do.....	Last Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State endowment, and pay pupils.....	1,000,000	4,000	6,500
4 Kentucky do.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wednesday in Sept.....	State.....	143,500	54,031	2,200
5 Ohio do.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	750,000	93,167	3,000
6 Virginia do*.....	Second Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	150,000	28,000	300
7 Indiana do.....	Second week in June to fourth week in Sept.....	do.....	530,460	61,698	3,299
8 Tennessee School.....	Second Wed. in June to second Fri. in Sept.....	do.....	150,000	30,611	900
9 North Carolina Institution*.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	55,000	14,000	1,000
10 Illinois Institution.....	Second Wed. in June to third Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	500,000	91,039	14,175
11 Georgia School.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	85,000	24,963	1,200
12 South Carolina Institution*.....	Last Wed. in June to first Wed. in Oct.....	State and pay pupils.....	58,000	18,570	900
13 Missouri School.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	312,000	63,450	2,425
14 Louisiana do.....	June 1 to Oct. 1.....	do.....	300,000	18,000	400
15 Wisconsin School.....	Second Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	125,000	45,384	2,400
16 Michigan do.....	Thurs. after June 7 to third Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	435,305	57,550	3,509
17 Mississippi Institution.....	Third Wed. in June to first Mon. in Oct.....	do.....	90,000	16,576	600
18 Iowa School.....	June 30 to Oct. 1.....	do.....	400,000	65,100	2,800
19 Texas Asylum.....	1st Wed. in June to 1st Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	225,000	43,114	900
20 Columbia Institution.....	Wed. before last Wed. June to Thurs. before last Thurs. Sept.....	United States and pay pupils.....	700,000	70,049	4,400
21 Alabama do.....	June 10 to Sept. 10.....	State.....	100,000	31,407
22 California do*.....	Second Wed. in June to fourth Wed. in August.....	do.....	550,000	57,801	2,500
23 Kansas do.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	233,000	35,237	2,150
24 Le Contoux St. Mary's Inst.....	Wed. before last week in June to first Mon. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	234,000	32,117	744
25 Minnesota School.....	First Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	276,000	45,637	1,765
26 N. Y. Inst. for Imp'v'd Ins'n.....	Third Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	198,716	55,909	820
27 Clarke School.....	Forty weeks after third Mon. in Sept. to third Mon. in Sept.....	Endowment, N. E. States, and pay pupils.....	150,000	47,253	2,312

Schools for the Deaf in the United States, 1898-'99. 59

201 Arkansas Institute, ..	Second Wed. in June to first Wed. in Oct.,	State,	100,000	41,000	1,500	300
202 Maryland School, ..	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.,	do.,	255,000	22,322	1,138	2,948
203 Nebraska Institute, ..	Fourth of June to middle of Sept.,	do.,	120,000	26,100	1,300	1,300
204 St. Joseph's Institute (N. Y.), ..	Last Fri. in June to second Mon. in Sept.,	State, counties, and pay pupils, ..	512,328	66,526	16,992	1,900
205 West Virginia School, ..	Forty weeks after second Wed. in Sept. to second Wed. in Sept.,	State,	90,000	34,500	1,000	1,000
206 Wyoming Oral School, ..	Twelve weeks, ..	State and tuition fees, ..	6,500	12,411	300	246
207 Oregon School, ..	May 10 to first Wed. in Sept.,	State and tuition fees, ..	30,000	12,411	300	200
208 Md. School for Colored*, ..	June 28 to Sept. 15, ..	State,	32,000	12,411	300	160
209 Colorado Institute, ..	First Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.,	do.,	225,000	22,322	1,138	650
210 Central N. Y. Institution, ..	Second week in June to third Wed. in Sept.,	State and counties, ..	120,000	26,100	1,300	400
211 Western Penn'a Institution, ..	Last Wed. in June to first Mon. in Sept.,	State and voluntary contributions, ..	257,117	47,422	3,043	3,043
212 Western New York Institution, ..	Forty-two weeks after first Mon. in Sept. to first Mon. in Sept.,	State, counties, and pay pupils, ..	185,000	65,763	900	7,000
213 Maine School, ..	Middle of June to second Mon. in Sept.,	State,	61,000	10,000	14,000	400
214 Rhode Island Institute, ..	Third Fri. in June to second Mon. in Sept.,	do.,	16,000	10,000	14,000	142
215 N. E. Industrial School, ..	Third Wed. in June to second Tues. in Sept.,	Voluntary contributions and State, ..	81,676	12,322	300	180
216 South Dakota School, ..	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.,	State,	185,000	17,654	75	180
217 Penna. Oral School, ..	June 20 to Sept. 1, ..	do.,	180,000	25,937	1,100	2,000
218 Utah School, ..	June 16 to Sept. 10, ..	State and pay pupils, ..	300,000	24,761	8,168	388
219 Northern N. Y. Institution, ..	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.,	State and counties, ..	66,935	9,014	300	200
220 Florida Institute, ..	Second Mon. in June to Sept. 15, ..	State,	15,000	5,014	200	200
221 New Mexico School, ..	Last week in June to first Wed. in Oct.,	Territory, ..	100,000	8,000	12,000	60
222 Washington State School, ..	Thurs. after last Wed. in May to last Wed. in Aug.,	do.,	38,000	3,818	366	400
223 Texas Institute for Colored*, ..	June 15 to Sept. 15, ..	State, counties, and pay pupils, ..	10,000	10,720	8,318	200
224 Albany Home School, ..	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.,	State,	28,000	14,317	19,000	75
225 North Dakota School, ..	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.,	State and pay pupils, ..	60,000	6,560	30,000	1,300
226 Home for Training in Speech, ..	None,	State,	51,000	35,000	30,000	1,300
227 Montana School, ..	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.,	do.,	175,000	35,000	30,000	1,300
228 North Carolina School, ..	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.,	Territory, ..	175,000	35,000	30,000	1,300
229 Oklahoma Institute, ..	July and August, ..	do.,	175,000	35,000	30,000	1,300

- 229 Public Schools, ..
 230 Public Day-Schools, (See page 62.)
 115 Denominational and Private
 Schools, (See page 66.)
 101 Schools in the United States.

* Contains a department for the blind also, the expenses of which are included in the statement of expenditures.

† For 1897-'98.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1898-'99—Continued.
B.—PUBLIC DAY-SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Name.	Location.	Date of Opening	Chief Executive Officer.
1 Horace Mann School for the Deaf.....	Boston, Mass. (178 Newbury St.).....	1869	Miss Sarah Fuller, Principal.
2 Wicker Park Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	(a) Evergr'n Av. near Robey St.	(a)	
3 Hartigan Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Arnour Ave. near Root St..	1879	
4 Prescott Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Cor. Wrightw'd & Ash'd Avs	1879	
5 Monroe Street Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	157 Monroe St.....		
6 Yale Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Cor. 70th St and Yale Ave..		
7 Lyman Trumbull Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Cor. Sedg'k & Division Sta..	1897	
8 Kozminski Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Cor. 54th St. & Ingleside Av.	1897	
9 Seward Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	4635 Ashland Ave.....	1897	
10 Darwin Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Hum. Blvd. & Armitage Av	1898	
11 Burr Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Ashl'd Av. near North Av.	1898	
12 Froebel Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	23d St. near Robey St.....	1898	
13 Cincinnati Public School for the Deaf.....	Cincinnati, Ohio, (b).....	1875	Miss Caroline Fesenbeck, Principal.
14 St. Louis Day-School for the Deaf.....	St. Louis, Mo. (c).....	1878	Jaa. H. Cloud, M. A., Principal.
15 Milwaukee Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Milwaukee, Wis. (d).....	1883	Miss Frances Wettstein, Principal.
16 Cincinnati Oral School for the Deaf.....	Cincinnati, Ohio (b).....	1886	Miss Virginia A. Osborn, Principal.
17 Evansville Day-School for the Deaf.....	Evansville, Ind. (Cor. 7th and Vine Sts.)	1886	Paul Lange, M. A., Principal.
18 Wausau Day-School for the Deaf.....	Wausau, Wis.....	1890	Miss Margaret Hurley, Principal.
19 Cleveland Day-School for the Deaf.....	Cleveland, Ohio (f).....	1892	Miss Katherine King, Principal.
20 Manitowoc Day-School for the Deaf.....	Manitowoc, Wis.....	1893	Miss Ada S. Locke, Principal.
21 Sheboygan Day-School for the Deaf.....	Sheboygan, Wis.....	1894	Miss Ray Kribs, Principal.
22 Detroit Day-School for the Deaf.....	Detroit, Mich. (g).....	1894	Miss M. Lizzie Donohoe, Principal.
23 Eau Claire Day-School for the Deaf.....	Eau Claire, Wis.....	1895	Miss Jennie C. Smith, Principal.
24 Fond du Lac School for the Deaf.....	Fond du Lac, Wis.....	1895	Miss Anna Sullivan, Principal.
25 Marinette School for the Deaf.....	Marinette, Wis. (1532 Main St.).....	1895	Miss Frances O. Ellis, Principal.
26 Oshkosh School for the Deaf.....	Oshkosh, Wis.....	1895	Miss Katharine Grimes, Principal.
27 La Salle Day-School for the Deaf.....	La Salle, Ill.....	1898	Miss Edith E. Brown, Principal.
28 Los Angeles Oral School for the Deaf.....	Los Angeles, Cal.....	1898	
29 Lorain County Oral Deaf School.....	Elyria, Lorain Co., Ohio.....	1898	Miss Emma L. Carrigan, Teacher.
29 Public Day-Schools in the United States.			

(a) The first Public Day-School for the Deaf in Chicago was opened in 1875 in a rented building on Van Buren Street.
(c) Cor. Ninth and Wash Streets. (d) Cor. Seventh and Prairie Streets.

(b) Court Street, west of John Street.
(g) Corner Twelfth and Calumet Streets.

Schools for the Deaf in the United States, 1898-'99. 61

Name.	Methods of Instruction.	Industries Taught.†	Year 1898-'99	Present Nov. 10, 1901				Present Number of Instructors			
				Total			Total have received instruction.	Total			Remain.
				Males.	Females.			A.†	B.†	C.†	
1 Horace Mann School.	Oral.	Art. Ck., Cl., Sc., Bl., and use of tools.	137	116	59	116	462	116	116	116	1
2 Walter Park School.	Combined.	Drawing and construction work.	15	8	6	2	1	8	8	8	1
3 Hartigan School.	Combined.	Drawing and construction work.	13	8	1	8	1	8	8	8	1
4 Prescott School.	Combined.	Drawing and construction work.	13	8	4	4	1	8	8	8	1
5 Monroe St. School.	Combined.	Drawing and construction work.	38	19	10	19	69	41	41	41	1
6 Yale School.	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	86	41	23	41	21	18	18	18	1
7 Lyman Trumbull School.	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	31	18	7	18	13	10	10	10	1
8 Kossuth School.	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	13	10	7	10	9	8	8	8	1
9 Seward School.	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	9	8	4	8	10	10	10	10	1
10 Burr School.	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	10	10	5	10	6	6	6	6	1
11 Darwin School.	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	6	6	5	6	6	6	6	6	1
12 Froebel School.	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	6	6	5	6	6	6	6	6	1
13 Cincinnati Public School.	Manual.	Sewing.	10	5	4	5	126	1	1	1	1
14 St. Louis School.	Combined.	None.	63	37	23	14	244	31	31	31	1
15 Milwaukee School.	Oral.	Art., Ck., Cl., Pr., Sc., Bl., Wc.	66	50	23	50	148	30	30	30	1
16 Cincinnati Oral School.	Oral.	Sc.	32	32	15	32	76	32	32	32	1
17 Evansville School.	Combined.	None.	16	16	8	16	60	1	1	1	1
18 Wausau School.	Oral.	None.	10	18	8	18	19	8	8	8	1
19 Cleveland School.	Combined.	None.	43	43	21	40	37	37	37	37	1
20 Massillon School.	Oral.	None.	8	8	6	8	14	6	6	6	1
21 Sheboygan School.	Oral.	None.	6	6	6	6	8	6	6	6	1
22 Detroit School.	Oral.	None.	9	9	8	9	26	8	8	8	1
23 Eau Claire School.	Oral.	Cl., Pa.	7	7	7	7	11	7	7	7	1
24 Fond du Lac School.	Oral.	Man.	6	6	3	6	10	6	6	6	1
25 Marinette School.	Oral.	None.	7	6	3	6	10	6	6	6	1
26 Oshkosh School.	Oral.	Cl., Man., Sc., Bl.	10	10	6	10	16	10	10	10	1
27 La Salle School.	Oral.	None.	6	6	4	6	6	6	6	6	1
28 Los Angeles School.	Oral.	None.	7	7	1	7	7	7	7	7	1
29 Public Day-Schools.	Oral.	None.	616	511	276	452	1,335	401	2	2	5

* See page 68. † See page 69. ** Including the pupils who have left during the year. (In the Chicago schools 27 pupils are counted twice, having been enrolled in more than one school within the year.)
† A = number taught speech. B = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method. C = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Auditory method.
†† Including the principal, and the teachers of industries. ‡ Including those who teach speech and those who teach by speech, but not the teachers of industries.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1898-'99—Continued.
PUBLIC DAY-SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

	Name.	Vacation.	How Supported.
1	Horace Mann School.	Last Tuesday in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	State and City.
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7	Chicago Public Schools	July and August.....	State Common School Fund.
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			
13	Cincinnati Public School.	June 23 to second Mon. in Sept.....	City.
14	St. Louis Day-School	Second Friday in June to first Mon. in Sept.....	City.
15	Milwaukee Day-School.	Last Fri. in June to first Mon. in Sept.....	State and City and County.
16	Cincinnati Oral School	June 20 to Sept. 8.....	State and City.
17	Evansville School.....	First Thurs. in June to first Mon. in Sept	City.
18	Wausau Oral School.....	June 18 to Sept. 8.....	State and City.
19	Cleveland School.....	June 15 to Sept. 15.....	City.
20	Manitowoc School	Last of June to first of Sept.....	State and City.
21	Sheboygan School	State and City.
22	Detroit Day-School.....	Twelve weeks.....	City.
23	Eau Claire School.....	Sixteen weeks.....	State and City.
24	Fond du Lac School.....	June 1 to Sept. 9.....	State and City.
25	Marquette School.....	Last of June to first of Sept	State and City.
26	Oshkosh School.....	June 23 to Sept. 6.....	State and City.
27	La Salle School	Last of June to first of September	State and City.
28	Los Angeles School	City and private subscription.
29	Lorain County School.....	State and County.
—			
29	Public Day-Schools in the United States.		

C.--DENOMINATIONAL AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Name.	Location.	Date of Opening.	Chief Executive Officer.
1 German Evangelical Lutheran Deaf and Dumb School.....	North Detroit, Wayne Co., Mich.....	1873	D. H. Uhlig, Director.
2 St. John's Catholic Deaf-Mute Institute.....	St. Francis, Wis.....	1876	Rev. M. M. Gerend, President.
3 F. Knapp's Institute.....	Baltimore, Md. (851 & 853 Hollins St.)...	1877	Wm. A. Knapp, Principal.
4 The McCowen Oral School for Young Deaf Children.....	Chicago, Ill. (6560 Yale Ave.).....	1883	Miss Cornelia D. Bingham, Head Teacher.
5 Ephpheta School for the Deaf.....	Chicago, Ill. (409 S. May St.).....	1884	Miss Margaret Cosgrove, Superintendent't.
6 Marie Conall's School for the Deaf.....	St. Louis, Mo. (1849 Cass Ave.).....	1885	Sister M. Adele, Principal.
7 Sarah Fuller Home for Little Children Who Cannot Hear.....	West Medford, Mass. (93 Woburn St.)..	1888	Miss Eliza L. Clark, Principal & Matron.
8 Notre Dame School for the Deaf.....	Cincinnati, O. (East Sixth St.).....	1890	Sister Mary of the S. Heart, Prin.
9 Charitable Deaf-Mute Institution of the Holy Rosary.....	Chinchuba, St. Tammany Parish, La.....	1890	Very Rev. Canon H. C. Mignot, Pres.
10 St. Joseph's Deaf-Mute Institute for Boys.....	Longwood Place, South St. Louis, Mo....	1893	Rev. Mother Agatha, Principal.
11 Wright-Humason School.....	New York, N. Y. (42 West 76th St.).....	1894	{ Thos. A. Humason, M. A., Ph.D. } Prin's { John Dutton Wright, M. A. }
12 St. Joseph's School and Home for Deaf-Mutes.....	North Temescal, Cal.....	1895	Sister M. Valeria, Principal.
13 Oakland Oral Kindergarten Home for the Deaf.....	Oakland, Cal. (San Pablo Av. & 43d St.)	1898	Miss Charlotte Louise Morgan, Director.
14 San Francisco School for the Deaf.....	San Francisco, Cal. (522 Oak St.).....	1898	A. N. Holden, Principal.
15 Western Oklahoma School for the Deaf.....	Byron, Woods Co., O. T.....	1898	Ellsworth Long, B. S., Principal.
15 Denominational and Private Schools in the United States.			

64 Schools for the Deaf in the United States, 1898-'99.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1898-'99—Continued.
DENOMINATIONAL AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Name	Methods of Instruction.	Industries Taught.	NUMBER OF PUPILS										Present Number of Instructors.									
			Year 1898.		Present Nov. 15, 1898.			Taught Speech.			Total have received instruction.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
			Year 1898.	Nov. 15, 1898.	A.	B.	C.	A.	B.	C.												
1 German Lutheran Institute	Combined.	None	50	43	20	25	41	235	4	3	1	4	3	1	4	3	1	4	3	1
2 St. John's Catholic Institute	Combined.	Car, Pa., Wc	68	78	40	18	45	45	3	291
3 St. Joseph's Catholic Institute (a, b)	Oral	None	26	26	16	10	26	36
4 McCarty's Oral School	Oral	Dr., Ho., Se., Sl	29	23	15	8	23	23
5 Ephraim School	Combined.	Dr., Se., Wc.	116	64	27	41	61	4	..	258	7	1	..	8	1	..	9	7	1	..	8	
6 Maria (Cajella) School	Combined.	Dr., Fr.	38	57	2	35	12	5	3	400	6	7	..	13	7	..	20	6	7	..	13	
7 Sarah Fuller Home	Oral	None	15	10	7	3	10	10	..	51	4	4	..	8	4	..	12	4	4	..	8	
8 Notre Dame School	Combined.	Se	15	13	8	6	10	3	2	31	3	3	..	6	3	..	9	3	3	..	6	
9 Institution of the Holy Rosary (b)	Combined.	Dr., Se	54	52	35	17	28	3	..	86	6	3	..	9	3	..	12	6	3	..	9	
10 St. Joseph's Institute, Mo.	Oral	Pa.	17	14	14	7	19	8	4	39	4	4	..	8	4	..	12	4	4	..	8	
11 Wright-Himes School	Oral	None	31	19	7	13	19	19	..	36	6	3	..	9	3	..	12	6	3	..	9	
12 St. Joseph's Institute, Cal	Manual	Art, Dr., Enl	26	26	6	20	..	3	..	27	4	4	..	8	4	..	12	4	4	..	8	
13 Oakland Kindergarten Home.	Oral	Bas, Ga., Ho., Sl	6	2	2	3	5	5	..	6	3	3	..	6	3	..	9	3	3	..	6	
14 San Francisco School	Oral	Ch., Se., Wc.	7	5	2	3	5	5	..	7	3	3	..	6	3	..	9	3	3	..	6	
15 Western Oklahoma School (a)	Manual	..	4	4	..	4	4	1	1	..	2	1	..	3	1	1	..	2	
16 Denom. and Private Schools.	436	400	201	199	200	149	6	1,470	60	18	64	78	2	43	81	11	11	11	11	11

* See page 68. ** Including the pupils who have left during the year, or chiefly by the Oral method. † C = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Articulate method. ‡ Including those who teach speech and those who teach by speech, but not the teachers of industries. (a) This school also admits hearing pupils, but the statistics of only the deaf pupils and their instructors are here given. (b) For 1897-'98.

Name.	Vacation.	How Supported.
1 German Evangelical Lutheran Institute	July 15th to September 1st.....	Tuition fees and Lutheran Congregations.
2 St. John's Catholic Institute.....	End of June to first week in Sept.....	Voluntary contributions and tuition fees.
3 Mr. Knapp's Institute.....	Tuition fees and State appropriations.
4 McCowen Oral School.....	None.....	Tuition fees and voluntary contributions.
5 Ephpheta School.....	Last Friday in June to first Monday in Sept.....	Tuition fees and voluntary subscriptions.
6 Maria Conallia School.....	Last week of June to first week of Sept.....	Tuition fees and voluntary contributions.
7 Sarah Fuller Home.....	August.....	Private subscription.
8 Notre Dame School.....	15th of June to first week in September.	
9 Institution of the Holy Rosary.....	June 1 to September 1.....	Voluntary contributions and tuition fees.
10 St. Joseph's Institute (Mo.).....	June 30 to Sept. 1.....	Voluntary contributions and tuition fees.
11 Wright-Humason School.....	June 7 to Oct. 1.....	Tuition fees.
12 St. Joseph's Institute (Cal.).....	Two months.....	Industry of sisters and tuition fees.
13 Oakland Kindergarten Home.....	July and August.....	Tuition fees.
14 San Francisco School.....	July 2 to Sept. 1.....	Private.
15 Western Oklahoma School.....	Private subscription.
15 Denominational and Private Schools.		

	Name.	Location.	Date of opening.	Chief Executive Officer.
1	Catholic Male Deaf-Mute Institution for the Province of Quebec	Mill-End, near Montreal, P. Q.	1848	Rev. Alf. Bélanger, C. S. V., Director.
2	Catholic Female Deaf and Dumb Institute.	Montreal, P. Q. (546 Henri St.)	1861	Rev. Sister Philip de Jesus, Superfress.
3	Halifax Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.	Halifax, N. S.	1867	James Pearson, Principal.
4	Ontario Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Bellefille, Ontario	1870	Robert Mathison, M. A., Superintendent.
5	MacKay Institution for Protestant Deaf-Mutes and the Blind.	Montreal, P. Q. (a)	1876	Mrs. H. E. Ashcroft, Superintendent.
6	Frederickton Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb	Frederickton, N. B.	1882	Albert F. Woodbridge, Principal.
7	Manitoba Deaf and Dumb Institution	Winnipeg, Manitoba.	1888	D. W. McDermid, Principal.

Schools in Canada.

[illegible]

Name.	Vacation.	How Supported.	Value of buildings and grounds	EXPENDITURE LAST FISCAL YEAR.		No. volumes in library.
				For support.	For buildings and grounds.	
1. Catholic Inst'n, (Male).....	Third Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	Province, pupils, and vol. contributions....	\$175,000	1,550
2. Catholic Inst'n, (Female).....	July 1st to Sept. 1st.....	Province and voluntary contributions.....	4,140
3. Halifax Institution.....	Last week in June to first week in Sept.....	Province and voluntary contributions.....	80,000
4. Ontario Institution.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Province.....	240,000	\$44,887	\$540	2,568
5. Mackay Institution.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Province, pupils, and vol. contributions....	60,000	10,537	924	780
6. Fredericton Institution.....	July 1 to Sept. 1.....	Provinces and voluntary contributions....	6,070
7. Manitoba Institution.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Province.....	35,000	11,700	500	400
7. Schools in Canada.						

* See page 68. †: See Page 69. ** Including those who have left school during the year. + A = number taught speech. B = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method. C = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Auricular method. †† Including the principal and the teachers of industries. ‡ Including those who teach speech and those who teach by speech, but not the teachers of industries. (a) Notre Dame de Grace.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

THE "Methods of Instruction" named in the preceding Tabular Statement may be defined as follows :

I. *The Manual Method*.—Signs, the manual alphabet, and writing are the chief means used in the instruction of the pupils, and the principal objects aimed at are mental development and facility in the comprehension and use of written language. The degree of relative importance given to these three means varies in different schools ; but it is a difference only in degree, and the end aimed at is the same in all.

II. *The Manual Alphabet Method*.—The manual alphabet and writing are the chief means used in the instruction of the pupils, and the principal objects aimed at are mental development and facility in the comprehension and use of written language. Speech and speech-reading are taught to all or part of the pupils in some of the schools recorded as following this method.

III. *The Oral Method*.—Speech and speech-reading, together with writing, are made the chief means of instruction, and facility in speech and speech-reading, as well as mental development and written language, is aimed at. There is a difference in different schools in the extent to which the use of natural signs is allowed in the early part of the course, and also in the prominence given to writing as an auxiliary to speech and speech-reading in the course of instruction ; but they are differences only in degree, and the end aimed at is the same in all.

IV. *The Auricular Method*.—The hearing of semi-deaf pupils is developed and improved to the greatest possible extent, and, with or without the aid of artificial appliances, their education is carried on chiefly through the use of speech and hearing, together with writing. The aim of the method is to graduate its pupils as hard-of-hearing speaking people instead of deaf-mutes.

V. *The Combined System*.—Speech and speech-reading are regarded as very important, but mental development and the acquisition of language are regarded as still more important. It is believed that in many cases mental development and the acquisition of language can be best promoted by the Manual or the Manual Alphabet method, and, so far as circumstances permit, such method is chosen for each pupil as seems best adapted for his individual case. Speech and speech-reading are taught where the measure of success seems likely to justify the labor expended, and in most of the schools some of the pupils are taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method or by the Auricular method.

NOTE.—In the judgment of the Editor of the *Annals*, the Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Western New York Institutions may properly be recorded among the schools whose methods are included in the Combined System ; in the preceding Tabular Statement they are recorded otherwise at the request of their Superintendents.

INDUSTRIES TAUGHT IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

The "Industries Taught" in American Schools for the Deaf, mostly designated by abbreviations in the preceding Tabular Statement, are: Art, Baking (Bak.), Barbering (Bar.), Basket-making (Bas.), Blacksmithing (Bl.), Bookbinding (Bo.), Bricklaying (Bk.), Broom-making (Br.), Cabinet-making (Cab.), Calcimining (Cal.), Carpentry (Car.), Chalk-engraving (Ce.), Cementing (Cg.), Chair-making (Ch.), Cooking (Ck.), Clay-modelling (Cl.), Coopers (Co.), China-painting (Cp.), Drawing (Dra.), Dress-making (Dr.), Embroidery (Em.), Engineering (En.), Fancy-work (Fan.), Farming (Fa.), Floriculture (Fl.), Gardening (Ga.), Glazing (Gl.), Harness Repairing (Ha.), Housework (Ho.), Horticulture (Hor.), Ironing (Ir.), Knitting (Kn.), Manual-training (Man.), Mattress-making (Ma.), Millinery (Mi.), Painting (Pa.), Paper-hanging (Pap.), Plastering (Pl.), Plate-engraving (Pe.), Photography (Ph.), Printing (Pr.), Sewing (Se.), Shoemaking (Sh.), Sloyd (Sl.), Stone-laying (St.), Tailoring (Ta.), Typewriting (Ty.), Venetian Iron Work (Ven.), Weaving (Wea.), Wood-carving (Wc.), Wood-engraving (We.), Wood-turning (Wt.), Wood-working (Ww.), and the Use of Tools.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Alabama Institute.—Miss Nettie McDaniel, of Georgia, and Miss Katherine B. Henderson, of Missouri, have been added to the corps of instruction. Mr. Bledsoe has resigned his teachership to accept the position of Resident Principal of the Maryland School for the Colored, and his place is not yet filled.

Shoemaking has been added to the trades taught, and a post-graduate class in printing has been established. The foreman of the printing office now gives his entire time to instruction, instead of half the day as formerly.

Arkansas Institute.—The vacancy caused in the Speech Department by the resignation of Miss Annie C. Brown, now Mrs. I. B. Gardner, has been filled by the election of Miss L. May Crawford, who taught physical culture in this school last year. Mr. I. B. Gardner, for three years a teacher in the Manual Department, has resigned to accept a more lucrative position in the New York Institution. The vacancy has been

filled by the election of Miss Ruth Stephan, of Arkansas, an experienced teacher of hearing children, and for one term a normal student in this school.

Mr. E. L. Keene, an expert printer and newspaper man, now holds the position of instructor of printing and is practically in charge of the *Optic*.

Central New York Institution.—Mrs. Holliday and Misses Bessie Hall, Letitia M. Booth, Claudia M. Redd, and Marie W. Comstock have severed their connection as teachers in this Institution, and Misses Mabel Morris, Emma A. Dobbin, Laura Wing, Jessie Skinner, Harriet Rhoads, and Mrs. Ida Thomas have been added to the corps of instruction.

Cincinnati Oral School.—Miss Bessie A. Tucker has been added to the corps of instructors.

Colorado School.—Mr. Dudley is taking a vacation of a few months in Arizona for the sake of his health. In his absence Mr. Argo is Acting Superintendent.

Eastern Iowa School.—The Eastern Iowa School, established ten years ago at Dubuque by Mr. DeCoursey French, has been discontinued. It was hoped at the outset that it would be adopted as a State institution, but the hope was not realized, and the amounts received from tuition fees, subscriptions, exhibitions, etc., have not been sufficient of late for its support. Mr. French will remain in Dubuque and engage in other business.

Evansville Day-School.—The School has been assigned a large room in the new High School building.

Georgia School.—Miss Nettie McDaniel has resigned her position as teacher to teach in the Alabama Institute, and Miss Anna Ervin, of Linnville, North Carolina, has been elected to fill her place.

Greenock (Scotland) School.—Complaints of unsatisfactory results from the oral method in this School last year led to an official investigation by a sub-committee of the School Board. The committee found that the complaints were justified in the cases of some pupils, but that the failures were partly due to the unfavorable home surroundings of the children and their irregular attendance at school. They recommended the con-

tinuance of the oral method but the substitution of the manual method for any pupils with whom after two years, or in case of doubt three years, the results were unsatisfactory; also that the head-mistress should possess a knowledge of the manual method as well as the oral, and that after two years all pupils should be taught the manual alphabet and allowed its use in the work of the class. Other recommendations were made concerning the qualifications of teachers, etc. The recommendations of the sub-committee were adopted by the Board.

Halifax Institution.—Miss L. Mahony left at the end of June to be married, and her place has been filled by the appointment of her sister, Miss C. Mahony. The vacancy caused by the resignation of Mr. L. E. Porter has been filled by the appointment of Miss M. Grant.

Indiana Institution.—Mr. Johnson has published three pamphlets relating to Institution work this year: "Concerning Pupils; Their Admission to and Conduct in the Institution" (88 pages); "School Manual" (96 pages), and "Outlines: Eighth Year" (28 pages). The first is sent to parents and others seeking admission for children; the second is for the guidance of teachers in their school work, and the third is a reference manual for all connected with the Institution. Some of the material contained in these pamphlets has been published in Mr. Johnson's similar manuals of previous years, but every year we note additions and improvements.

Keeler Class.—The "Keeler Articulation Class" established fourteen years ago in New York by Miss Sarah Warren Keeler has been discontinued. Miss Keeler's future address is Candor, Tioga County, New York.

LaSalle School.—An oral day-school was begun at LaSalle, Illinois, last year under the law passed by the State legislature in 1897 and published in the *Annals*, vol. xlii, p. 350. The first principal, Miss Letitia L. Doane, who is now teaching in Chicago, has been succeeded by Miss Edith E. Brown.

Lorain County School.—A public oral day-school has been opened in Ilyria, Lorain county, Ohio, under the law passed by the State legislature at its last session and published in the

last number of the *Annals*. Miss Emma L. Carrigan has been appointed teacher.

Los Angeles School.—An organization known as the "Southern California Association for the Oral Education of the Deaf," aided by the Board of Education of Los Angeles, has opened an oral day-school in that city. The Board provides a school-room and pays for one teacher, while the Association pays for another teacher. The State legislature will be urged this year to authorize boards of education throughout the State to establish day-schools where five or more pupils can be found.

Louisiana Institution.—The statistics of this Institution, given in the Tabular Statement on another page, are of November 30 instead of November 10, as the school did not open until November 23, on account of the quarantine against yellow fever.

Maine School.—Miss Emma L. Plympton, a teacher in this School, was a passenger on the steamer "Portland," which sailed from Boston for Portland on the evening of November 26, 1898, and was lost with all on board in the great storm which began that night and raged all the next day. For the following notice we are indebted to Miss Grace E. Armstrong, a teacher in the School:

Miss Plympton left us Wednesday evening, November 23, to spend Thanksgiving with her family at Charles River Village, near Boston, the occasion being the first reunion of the family in thirty-five years. She was reluctant about going, as our corps of teachers was smaller than usual on account of sickness, but Miss Taylor, knowing how anxious she was to spend Thanksgiving at her home, urged her to go. She was in the best of spirits, looking forward to a pleasant visit with her family.

Miss Plympton began her work as a teacher of the deaf in the Clarke Institution, staying there but a short time. Then she taught in the Portland School for a year under Miss Barton. She left this School for work in the Pennsylvania Institution, where she remained for eleven years, returning to Portland in 1894.

Miss Plympton was the most faithful of workers, her devotion to her work knowing no limit. Most of her time out of school she spent in promoting the progress and happiness of the children. Her kind face, loving manner, and sympathetic nature made her a universal favorite with both teachers and pupils. Not a child in the School but loved her dearly.

She kept in touch with the work of other schools, and always endeavored to keep herself fully informed in regard to the best methods of teaching.

Such a life as hers cannot be ended by any such disaster. Her work will follow her, and she will continue to live in the hearts and minds of those who knew her best.

Maryland School for the Colored.—The vacancy in the office of Resident Principal occasioned by the death of Mr. Stauffer has been filled by the appointment of Mr. John F. Bledsoe, late a teacher in the Alabama Institute.

Milwaukee Day-School.—During the past year the Normal Department of this School has become a part of the normal school system of the State. The following rules regarding applicants have been adopted:

Applicants entering the Normal Department shall be required to hold a Milwaukee assistant teacher's certificate, or its equivalent, or shall have completed one year of the advanced course of a State Normal School. After having attended the School for the Deaf for observation and practice work for one year, members of the class shall be examined in anatomy and physiology of the organs of speech and ear, science of the elements of speech, history, and special pedagogy for the deaf. They shall also be examined in senior psychology and the science of education at the Milwaukee State Normal School. A standing of not less than 65 per cent. in each study, and a general average of not less than 75 per cent. shall be required. The Superintendent of Schools shall certify the standings of the normal students so examined to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction for the issuance of certificates of teachers of the schools for the deaf, as by law provided.

Mississippi Institution.—The school was not opened this year until November 23 on account of the yellow fever quarantine. That is the reason no statistics of the pupils are given in our Tabular Statement.

Montana School.—Since last May the School has occupied the building erected for it by the State at a cost of \$50,000. It is lighted by electricity and heated by hot air with forced draught and ventilation, and occupies a site of 40 acres of land suitable for cultivation. A separate oral class and a manual training class have been established.

New Jersey School.—Within the past year an infirmary building has been completed and put in use. It is in charge of a trained nurse, and has accommodation for thirty patients.

There are four main wards and smaller rooms for suspected cases, physician's office, compounding dispensary, etc. The arrangements for heating, ventilation, cooking, and the maintaining of sanitary conditions are the best and most modern. A handsome iron fence has been put around the grounds at a cost of about \$3,500, and the sidewalks bounding the school property have been flagged, curbed, and guttered. The street on which the school fronts has been paved with sheet asphalt. About \$600 has been expended on the library within the last school year.

New York Institution for Improved Instruction.—Miss Mary B. Shaw, formerly of the Pennsylvania Institution, has been added to the corps of instructors.

North Carolina Institution (Raleigh).—Miss Blanche Wilkins has resigned her position as teacher to accept a similar position in the Texas School for Colored Youth. The vacancy is temporarily filled by the appointment of Mrs. W. A. Caldwell.

Oakland Kindergarten Home.—The Home for young children opened last year in Chicago by Miss Charlotte Louise Morgan has been moved to Oakland, California, at the expense of Mr. and Mrs. Irving C. Lewis, of that city, who have a deaf son whom they wish to have educated at home by the oral method.

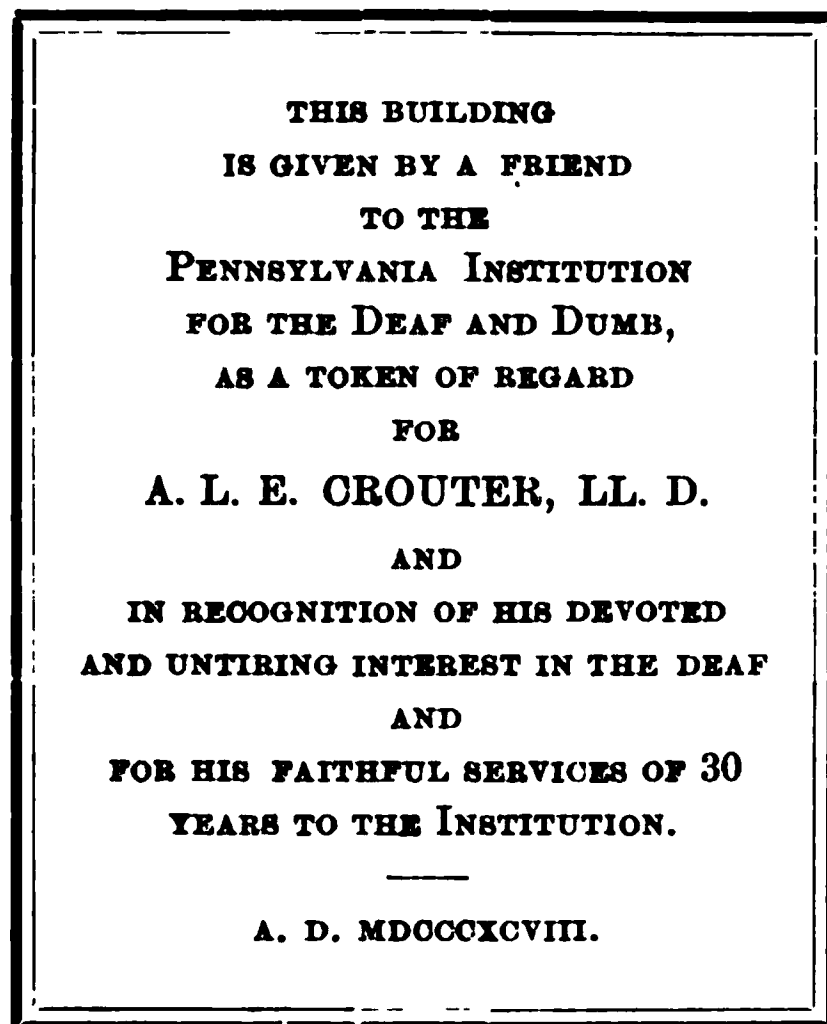
Ohio Institution.—Mr. Clarence W. Charles, instructor in printing, has published an excellent little "Manual of Printing" for his pupils, giving the names of the materials used in the printing office, the technical terms of the trade, rules for setting type, punctuation, etc.

Oregon School.—Four years ago the School was moved to new grounds, seven miles from Salem. The only means of reaching the town is by hacks and wagons, and great inconvenience results, as well as increased expense. A movement is now on foot to return the School into or near the town. The decision rests with the legislature.

Paris (France) National Institution.—Mr. D. Giraud has been appointed Director in the place of Mr. Debax.

A new class for young children has been established. Pupils are admitted to this class as young as six years of age.

Pennsylvania Institution.—A well-appointed gymnasium on the Swedish system has been established, with Miss Grace G. Greene as director. The gymnasium is in the new "Morris Industrial Hall," the gift of Mr. John T. Morris, a director of the Institution. On the wall is a marble tablet bearing this inscription:



Pennsylvania Oral School.—Miss Maud Williams has resigned her position as teacher to take a private pupil in the South, and Miss Helen Merriman has been elected to fill the vacancy.

Texas School.—In accordance with the custom of rotation in office prevailing in this School, Mr. B. F. McNulty, of San Antonio, has been appointed to succeed Mr. Rose as Superintendent. Mr. Blattner has been removed by Mr. Rose from the position of Principal, which he has held for fourteen years, on the ground that he applied for the superintendency without resigning the principalship. The appointment of Mr. Blattner's successor will be left to the new Superintendent.

Texas Institute for Colored.—Mr. S. J. Jenkins has been appointed Superintendent in the place of Mr. W. H. Holland, and Miss Blanche H. Wilkins, late of the North Carolina Institution, teacher in the place of Miss P. A. Glenn.

Virginia School.—Miss Eva DeJarnette has been elected to assist Mr. Williams in the infant class.

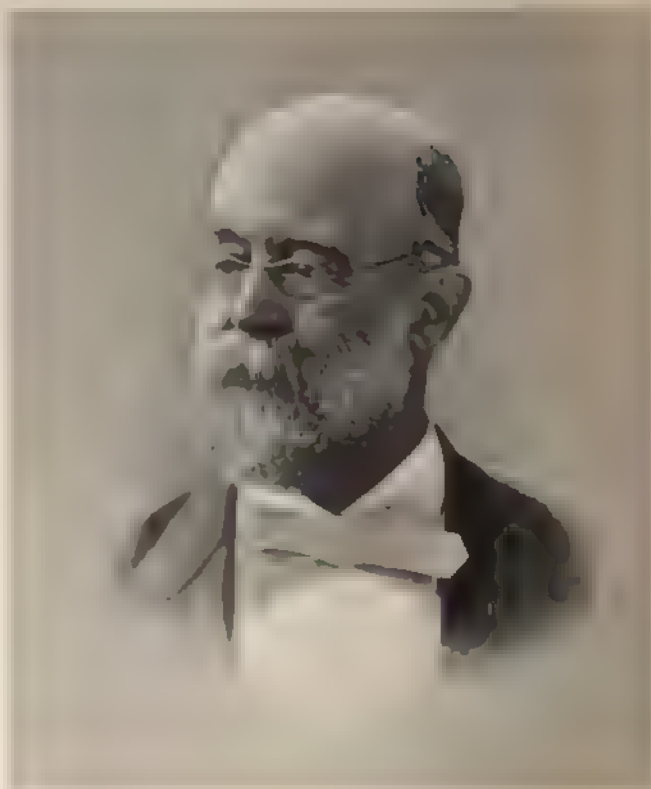
West Virginia School.—Mrs. Ferguson has been transferred from the Department for the Blind, giving an additional teacher for the Department for the Deaf.

Western New York Institution.—Mr. Gilman H. Perkins, Treasurer and Trustee of the Institution, and a prominent citizen of Rochester, died November 16, 1898. Mr. Perkins was interested in the welfare of the deaf from having a deaf daughter. He was active in the establishment of the Institution, held the office of Treasurer and Trustee from its organization until his death, often gave it the benefit of his private credit when such help was needed, and in every way labored earnestly and intelligently for its success.

Western Oklahoma School.—Mr. Ellsworth Long, late a teacher in the School at Guthrie, Oklahoma, the establishment of which was largely due to his efforts, has begun a new school at Byron, in consequence of differences with the Contractor and Superintendent of the School at Guthrie. Hearing children are also admitted to Mr. Long's School. Whether the School is to be permanent will depend upon the support it may receive.

Western Pennsylvania Institution.—Miss Elizabeth Thompson has been added to the corps of teachers.

Of the 21 new pupils this year admitted all except one were either congenitally deaf or had been deprived of their hearing so early in life as to have lost their speech.



Affectionately Yours
Isaac Lewis Peet

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

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FEBRUARY, 1899.

ISAAC LEWIS PEET.

DR. ISAAC LEWIS PEET, Emeritus Principal of the New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, died of pneumonia at his home, Sedgwick Park, Fordham Heights, New York, December 27, 1898, aged seventy-four. He was the oldest son of Harvey Prindle and Margaret Maria (Lewis) Peet, and was born December 4, 1824, at the American School for the Deaf, Hartford, Connecticut, with which his father was at that time connected as instructor and steward. He received his elementary education at home and in private schools in New York city, his father having become Principal of the New York Institution in 1831. He was graduated from Yale College in 1845, and in the same year was appointed an instructor in the New York Institution. While still engaged in teaching, in order to better prepare himself for his duties, he pursued a course of study in Union Theological Seminary, graduating in 1849. In 1852 he was appointed instructor of the newly formed high class, and in 1854 Vice-Principal of the Institution. In 1867, when his father was elected Emeritus Principal, he succeeded him as Principal, and at the end of 1892, after more than forty-seven years of continuous service, became Emeritus Principal. Dr. Peet married, June 27, 1854, the beautiful and gifted Mary Toles, a graduate of the New York

Institution, who survives him. Four children were born of this union: Percy, a boy of rare promise, who died in childhood; Walter Browning, formerly an instructor in the New York Institution, now a physician in Yonkers, New York; George Herbert, an assistant editor of the *New York Journal*; and Elizabeth, the devoted companion and stay of her parents in their declining years.

In 1872 Dr. Peet received from Columbia College the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws. From 1868 to 1895 he was a member of the Standing Executive Committee of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf. In 1896 he was President of the Seventh Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf. He was also President of the Medico-Legal Society of New York, President of the Washington Heights Century Club, and Honorary Vice-President of Manhattan (now J. Hood Wright Memorial) Hospital.

Dr. Peet's most important published works are "A Monograph on Decimal Fractions," "Language Lessons," "A Manual of Vegetable Physiology," "The History of Deaf-Mute Instruction during One Hundred Years, 1776-1876," and "The Psychical Status and Criminal Responsibility of the Totally Uneducated Deaf and Dumb." He also made valuable contributions to the literature of the profession in numerous articles published in the *Annals*, in papers read before Conventions of Instructors and Conferences of Superintendents and Principals, and in the Annual Reports of the New York Institution.

Dr. Peet's last visit to the Institution was as the guest of Mr. Currier at the annual celebration of his birthday, December 4, 1898, and his last address to the deaf was delivered on Gallaudet Day, six days later. His final illness was short, his death peaceful.

The funeral was held in the chapel of the New York Institution, December 30, 1898. Many friends from outside and former pupils joined the instructors, officers and

resident pupils in paying this tribute of respect and affection to their well-beloved friend. The exercises were conducted by the Rev. Dr. Charles A. Stoddard, a director of the New York Institution and Dr. Peet's former pastor, and by the Rev. Dr. John C. Bliss, Pastor of the Washington Heights Presbyterian Church, of which Dr. Peet was long an elder. Besides the address by Dr. Stoddard, addresses were delivered by the Rev. Dr. Thomas Gallaudet, Dr. Peet's friend from childhood and his early associate as instructor in the New York Institution, and by President Edward M. Gallaudet, for twenty-seven years his colleague on the Standing Executive Committee of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf. The burial was at Spring Grove Cemetery, Hartford, Connecticut, where the service was conducted by the Rev. Dr. Joseph H. Twitchell.

E. A. F.

NEW YORK, *Jan.* 1, 1873.

My father died peacefully at 1.45 this morning.

ISAAC LEWIS PEET.

NEW YORK, *Dec.* 28, 1898.

Father died last night.

WALTER B. PEET.

After an interval of twenty-five years, again the overland telegraph line has been pressed into service to convey a message of sudden death, bringing grief to us on the Pacific shore, who esteemed Isaac Lewis Peet for his great services in the cause of deaf-mute instruction, but *loved* him for the warmth of his heart, the sweetness of his spirit, and the purity of his life. There is not time now to write a biography of this good man, or to make a critical analysis of his work and its value. It is hoped and greatly to be desired that some one near to Dr. Peet for the past thirty years will undertake this task and give to the world a permanent record of one whose life was

singularly useful and beautiful. My present purpose is merely to recall a few tender memories of my departed friend, upon whose worn and pathetic body the burden of physical weakness has pressed heavily for several years, but whose indomitable spirit sustained and comforted him, and who was withal one of the sweetest souls I ever knew; one who, as Tennyson says of Arthur Hallam, ever

bore without abuse

The grand old name of gentleman.

My acquaintance with Dr. Peet began on a bright September day in 1857 at Fanwood, where I had gone to consider the question of entering a novel profession. Before the snows came our acquaintance had ripened into a friendship that has known no variableness or shadow of turning during these forty-one years. Our intimate association continued for eight years, when a call to California interrupted the dearest companionship of my life.

Those of us belonging to the older generation of teachers, who knew both father and son, might be expected to compare the two men, but they were so different in physique, in early training, in equipment and mental characteristics, as to bar any comparison. They were cast in different moulds and of different metal; alike only in the strong religious faith which dominated them both. Dr. Harvey P. Peet was of large frame and commanding presence. His brawny strength had been developed in the use of axe and plough-handle. His preparation for, as well as course in, college was one long struggle between poverty on the one side and pluck and ambition on the other. He sawed wood in winter, often returned to the farm for wages, and between times taught school, as opportunity offered. Dr. Peet often bemoaned these hardships and interruptions of study, without stopping to think whether, after all, the toughened moral and mental fibre acquired in the struggle with adverse circumstance did not more

than counterbalance the larger culture and the freer breathing of university atmosphere which less straitened means would have allowed him to enjoy. At any rate, he determined that his first-born and well-beloved son should be spared the obstacles and interferences which he had encountered, and that the boy's literary pathway should be made as smooth as possible. To this end, Lewis had the best teachers, abundance of books, and uninterrupted hours of study. His active and alert mind responded to the facilities with which the boundless love of his father surrounded him ; consequently his preparation for college was excellent and his academic career at Yale was all that parental ambition could ask for. He was graduated with honor in 1845, and immediately began his life-work of teaching the deaf, where he has never had a superior and but few equals.

Dr. Isaac Lewis Peet was the antithesis of his father. He was smaller in stature ; little given to athletics, and so inapt in manual skill that he never could drive a nail without mashing his thumb. He was deficient in business judgment, though it required several severe experiences to convince him of it, and he had not all the qualities which go to make a great executive officer. In these things which the son lacked, the father was eminent ; but as the opal is said to owe its beauty to defects, so, perhaps, the iridescent glow of Lewis Peet's fertile brain and the tender light that shone in the many facets of his lovely character would have been lost to us and to the world, if he had possessed that hard-headed, often hard-hearted, *common* sense, so much bepraised in this age of money-getting and practical affairs. I once heard Charles Dudley Warner say in a short college address that the university of the future would be a place where nothing *practical* is taught. Lewis Peet was a graduate of that ideal university. He was not a practical man, but he was a great teacher, and great teachers are apt to be deficient in mat-

ters of discipline and detail, as well as in the cent per cent transactions of the banker, who generally has a sort of mild contempt for professional men.

It was a sight to see Dr. Peet with a class or on the platform. He was the personification of graceful sign-making, and his facility of translation was something marvellous. He had the rare "ambilingual" faculty of speaking and signing fluently at the same time. His quick and acute analysis of a thought, presenting it in its best form to the deaf-mute mind, made his public exercises a pleasure and a profit to all teachers. He was an inspiration to the pupils who came under his instruction, and won their love by his ardent sympathy and helpfulness in difficulty. He was an enthusiast in a profession where enthusiasm is an essential to success. As a pantomimist, he was probably not equal to David E. Bartlett, but one of Dr. Peet's great services to deaf-mute instruction was the development of pantomime into almost a classic language, making of it a valuable instrument in the higher education of the deaf. This higher education was an early ideal of Dr. Peet, and I do not think it is overstepping the limits of truth to say that Gallaudet College was made possible largely by his earnest efforts in this direction.

But I am encroaching upon the work of his biographer, which is not my purpose. I wish, rather, in these few hasty lines to bear witness to those traits of character which made Dr. Peet so lovable and so dear to his friends. He was singularly pure in heart and thought; he was charitable in his judgments; a man without guile, staunch and loyal in his friendships, and of such sweetness of temper as to disarm harsh criticism of him or his work. He had a certain feminine side to his character that inspired tenderness, and yet a virility of persistent purpose that commanded respect. He had a genial wit, and a keen appreciation of humor, but he never allowed his wit to wound, or his humor to degenerate into grossness. In

the freedom of masculine intercourse his tongue was never loosed to the utterance of coarse jests or to the exchange of equivocal stories. He loved the stimulus of mental attrition, and used often to defend a paradox for the sake of exercise in debate, but he was always fair-minded and hospitable to truth. He was brim full of the milk of human kindness, and his courtesy was unfailing. He loved peace and exemplified in his life the millennial grace of good-will to men. His Christian faith was firm and abiding, and sweet as St. John's. Had he been of the Twelve his place would have been on the breast of the Master. He would not have been so effusive in his zeal and promises as Peter, but he never would have denied his Lord.

Such was Dr. Isaac Lewis Peet. Is it wonder that everybody loved him?

WARRING WILKINSON,
Principal of the California Institution, Berkeley, California.

AT DR. PEET'S FUNERAL.

They uttered praise above thee,
Sweet singing filled the air ;
The roses' incense floated
Through pauses of the prayer.

Scholar and sage they named thee,
" Leader of men " was heard,—
Unmoved and chill among them,
There came from thee no word.

But when thy silent children,—
Oh, these, they knew thee best—
In mute amaze leaned o'er thee,
Did naught disturb thy rest ?

Surely thy spirit hovered,—
Thine eyes did see them there,
Saying with tears, " We loved him "—
And breathed for them a prayer.

MAY MARTIN,
Instructor in Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

RESOLUTIONS.

At a meeting of the principal, professors, teachers, officers, and pupils of the New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, held January 4, 1899, the following minute was unanimously adopted :

Resolved, That we have received with deep sorrow the announcement of the death, at his late home in this city, on December 27th, of Dr. Isaac Lewis Peet, Emeritus Principal of the Institution.

Closely identified with the history of the Institution, its efforts, trials, and triumphs, for nearly fifty years, Dr. Peet devoted himself with untiring energy, perseverance, and fidelity, to the care of its interests, the extension of its influence, and the administration of its affairs. His marked ability as a teacher, his thorough knowledge of, and sincere affection for the deaf are matters of record; the high place he held among his professional brethren as an authority on the general subject of the instruction of the deaf, their psychical condition, and educational status, attests the appreciation they held of his character and capacity. He was pre-eminent in all his relations for unswerving integrity, high sense of duty, uniform courtesy, and great tenderness of heart.

To the members of the Institution he was especially endeared by the charm of his personality, strengthened by long association, and his unwearied interest in whatsoever related to the prosperity of the Institution. His death comes as a personal loss to each member of the Institution, severing, as it does, the close relationship extending through many years, and cherished on their part with the sincerest esteem and affection.

Resolved, That we hereby tender to the widow and family of the late Emeritus Principal the assurance of our heartfelt sympathy in this time of their deep affliction, and that a copy of this minute, duly attested, be transmitted to them.

Resolved, That copies be offered for publication to the *American Annals of the Deaf* and the *Deaf-Mutes' Journal*.

THOMAS F. FOX,
Secretary.

ENOCH HENRY CURRIER,
Chairman.

THE RELATION OF THE HAND TO MENTAL DEVELOPMENT.

TO HAVE a proper conception of the value of a thing, it must be known in a comprehensive way, and in addition to this it is well to bear in mind that the value of everything in this world is relative, not absolute. And so, to appreciate the value of the different organs of the body, and the part they play in the development of the whole being, we must know them in their various relations to one another. No organ of the body occupies so mean a place in the human mechanism that it does not serve some useful purpose in the accomplishment of the end for which man was placed in this world. I will now attempt to show, in a general way, how much we are indebted to one of those lower organs, the hand. With the movements of the muscles and limbs, especially of the hands, begin the first struggles of a dawning intelligence to express itself. Many of the movements, at first accompanied by effort, become automatic; but those of the hands are a constant succession of efforts, which have a peculiar influence in the development of the brain—that is, mental power, or intelligence. This is noticed even in the plays of children, and is even more noticeable in writing, drawing, and other disciplinary exercises. Last winter one of my lectures at the Wisconsin School for the Deaf dealt with the leading languages of the world, but in reality three-quarters of my time was spent in tracing up the origin of speech or language, for it is a maxim that “nothing is thoroughly understood unless its beginning is known.” To make a long story short, an eminent philologist, who represents a class of the most advanced thinkers in this line, concludes that man at first was a sign-making animal, then a drawing animal, and lastly a speaking animal. It is hardly necessary for me to call your attention to the influence

which the hand must have had in the evolution of his mental calibre. With the instinct of speech fixed in them by thousands of preceding generations, as a means of expressing thought, I still believe that my own children have received much increased mental development by trying to talk with their hands. This statement will apply with double force to those *deaf* children whose parents are deaf, or who have deaf brothers or sisters in school. There are some in the Wisconsin School now who furnish unmistakable evidence of it. The editor of the *Medical News* of Philadelphia, in an editorial in that paper not long ago on the "Perfection and Resources of the Human Machine," declares it as his belief "that the use of the club has made us right-handed, and that right-handedness has specialized the cortex of the brain to such a degree that speech was possible ; also that our mental superiority is purely an outgrowth of, and a part of, our muscular superiority." Another medical authority seems to take very much the same view, for he says that "muscular actions are essential elements in our mental operations," and that "were man deprived of the infinitely varied movements of the hands, tongue, etc., he would be no better than an idiot."

Small children whispering over their lessons in school, just as many of the deaf children spell on their fingers, appear to bear out this statement. This applies even in the case of much older people, as will easily be inferred from remarks further on.

A rising young surgeon of Chicago, who is known as a tireless investigator and demonstrator in his chosen field, puts himself on record as favoring the hand and speech as the chief means by which man has been enabled to reach his present state of mental development. This leads me to speak of what one of the physicians of Delavan said when we were discussing these matters one day. It was to the effect that the brain of a child whose hands

are cut off is never fully developed. Whatever truth there is in the above assertions, the influence of muscular action, whether or not it amounts to a sixth sense, is simply an overwhelming fact that can in no way be gainsaid in the development of the mind. No doubt some of the readers of the *Annals* are acquainted with that beautiful piece of poetry describing the doings of the "Little Brown Hands," which ends with the following words :

Those who toil bravely are strongest,
The humble and poor become great ;
And so from these brown-handed children
Shall grow mighty rulers of state.

The pen of the author and statesman,
The noble and wise of the land,
The sword and the chisel and palette,
Shall be held in the little brown hand.

This at once reminds us that the great minds and characters of history rest upon a foundation of physical exertion, conscious and unconscious, the corner-stone of which is manual activity. I might cite such examples as the performance of Dewey and his men at Manila, which contain many lessons of far-reaching import to us as teachers. Nor is it either for mental development or effective defence or offence alone that the race is indebted to the skilled hand, but for the highest material welfare as well. A summary of achievements in this latter line would form one of the most interesting pages of history. Take, for example, the nation with which the United States has recently been at war. The fatal error of her political existence, and the one which marks the starting point of her decline, was the expulsion of the Moors forever from Spain, a people whose manual skill in the arts were to her a source of untold wealth.

Now let us see if there cannot be found some rational explanation of this predominance claimed for the hand in mental development. Roughly speaking, there are two

great classes of nerves, sensory and motor; the first terminating in the skin, and the other in the muscles. The sensory nerves give us the sense of sight, touch, taste, hearing, and smell; that is, they carry messages to the brain from the external world. All sensations have a tendency to pass out in some form of action, and it is the office of the motor nerves to imitate that action. To facilitate this, the motor tracts of the brain cortex or outer layer of the brain are in the most intimate relation with the sensory centres. If sensations do not lead to action, sooner or later, no mental progress is made, since the sensory stimulus has been insufficient to produce any decided activity in the sensory nerve cells. Motor promptings are said to pass from sensory centres to motor cells by means of nerve fibres, which are outgrowths of activity in the sensory cells. If the sensory tracts are allowed to remain in an inactive state by lack of proper environment and other means suggestive of healthy action of all kinds, such as movements of the hands, vocal organs, eyes, legs, etc., these fibres will be few in number, and, consequently, there will be an absence or weakness of the motor power which makes us capable of any definite line of action at all, whether it be learning to walk, talk, write, or master a trade. There are sensory and motor centres for the ear, tongue, etc., whose force as a factor in mental development depends on two things—the area they occupy in the brain and the condition of the centres, or their organs, whether normal, abnormal, or injured. But it is only with the sensory and motor centres of the hand and arm that we are dealing. Now, it is claimed that the sensory and motor area for the arm and hand is very much larger than the area controlling any other portion of the body of equal size, except the face; but the face includes the organs of sight, hearing, taste, and smell—four in all, which still further emphasizes what has already been said in regard to the hand.

It is also held that "this large motor area in the brain, governing the infinitely varied and complex movements of the hand, shows that the hand is by far the richest source of motor ideas, and especially that portion of it little appealed to, either in gymnastics or unskilled labor." What are "motor ideas"? They are such ideas as have a suggestive force which tends to action in the direction indicated by them; or, in popular language, they are simply practical ideas. An authority tells us that we must not look for them in the study of mere words as such—the dead languages, English grammar, and four-fifths of English literature as it has been taught for the last hundred years—as he finds that such study tends to sensory and motor paralysis.

The very fact that the movements of the hand are under the direct control of nerve cells in the brain make it a powerful instrument when properly used by the educator. It is the chief glory of manual training that it has taken advantage of the varied and complex movements of the hand and arm, and partly systematized them in courses of work of inestimable educational and industrial value. Then there is the sense of touch, of which all the other senses are believed by many to be only modifications. This sense, as embodied in the hand alone, is active and, in many respects, the most wonderful of all the senses. Some have even held that there is cerebral matter in the nerves of the finger tips. The readers of the *Annals* are already too familiar with the assistance which this tactile sense in the hand has rendered in teaching speech to the deaf, and in the education of the blind and blind-deaf, to need any further comment here. As to the utility of a manual exercise of whatever kind, it becomes useless as a means of developing the mental powers the moment its performance is accomplished without effort or, in other words, becomes automatic. It is then relegated to the spinal cord, and the hand is left to explore new fields and

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make new conquests. In the case of automatic movements, or those not directly under the control of the brain, the impressions or sensations calling for them never go to the brain, but only to the spinal cord. In the preparation of this paper, the question of ambidexterity has naturally suggested itself. Right-handedness has been a mark of the race from the remotest ages ; but it has been recently demonstrated from statistics collected by school-teachers that, as a rule, where left-handedness occurs it is as deep-seated and natural as right-handedness. Attempts to cure it have in general been failures, but a considerable number of those who have had to deal with left-handed children have, instead of trying to correct it, trained the right along with the left, which seems to be the more rational course to pursue. Such men as Dr. E. Seguin, a former commissioner of education, and Brown-Séquard, the Franco-American physiologist, insist not only upon the equal training of both hands, but of both sides of the body as well, by a process of physiological education of children. They hold that this will not only insure the performance of a larger amount of physical and mental labor, but very much assist in doing away with many diseases, and more evenly harmonize the temper and passions. The meaning of this is the restoring to the left side of the body a greater amount of activity, which would also increase the supply of blood on that side, whereas, at present, there is a less supply on the left side of the body and in the right hemisphere of the brain. In proof of the correctness of this view, Dr. Seguin points out that in naturally left-handed persons the physiological conditions are exactly the reverse of this. Dr. Seguin believes that this one-sidedness is not only a deformity but that it involves a waste of force that could be economized to very great advantage. The wisdom of this will be apparent to all, at least in the case of the hands, when we reflect how convenient it is for the left hand to be able to assist or supplement the right.

We now come to one of the most vital functions in education—the assimilation of knowledge—that is, making it a living part of ourselves in both theory and practice. The five senses, on the one side, have been designated as the absorbing power, and the hand and tongue, on the other, as the expressing power. It is claimed that it is chiefly by the result of the action of these two that the work of assimilation goes on in the brain. Nor is this claim without reason. One strong proof of it is in the old saying, “Practice makes perfect,” which is but another name for complete assimilation. We all know how much more quickly a thing is acquired by rote or rule than by intelligent practice. And it is right here that great care must be exercised lest the hand or tongue be hurried or crowded by an over-stocking of the absorbing power. In the preface to “A New Device in Teaching Language,” published in the *Annals* for February, 1898, I took particular pains to impress this point on the minds of my readers. A tendency like this can be counteracted by a more thorough exercise of the senses, by manual and other exercises of a practical and useful nature.

The moral side of this question is of too great importance to be overlooked. The bringing of the hand and senses more largely into play in education would be a great improvement upon the old ways of teaching. It puts a stop to much that looks like mere juggling with words, and gives a predominance to the real over the visionary. By constant action, especially of the hand, brain structure is fairly modified, and the muscles made to conform thereto, thus creating permanent habits of right conduct at the most impressible period of life, and a tendency to eliminate from the vocabulary of young people such expressions as, “I don’t know how to do this,” or, “I can’t do that;” and so they are taught to live by their hands as well as by their wits.

That the training of the hand is of the first importance

make new conquests. In the case of the left hand, or those not directly under the influence of the impressions or sensations calling for action, the brain, but only to the spinal cord. In the case of the right hand, the question of ambidexterity suggested itself. Right-handedness is the rule from the remotest ages ; it is demonstrated from statistics collected from all ages that, as a rule, where left-handedness is deep-seated and natural as right-handedness, to cure it have in general been found to be of no number of those who have had children have, instead of trying to cure the right hand along with the left, which is the rational course to pursue. Some of the former commissioner of education in France, the Franco-American physiologists, have advocated the equal training of both hands from childhood as well, by a process of imitation, as they hold that the equal training of both hands is the performance of a larger amount of labor, but very much assist in the case of the left hand, and more evenly harmonize the two hands.

The following is a list of the



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in the earlier periods of life is emphasized by a recent discovery that those portions of the brain governing the hand cannot be developed after the age of sixteen. This view seems to be supported by a professor of the University of Chicago, who, in speaking of brain growth, indicates, if he does not actually say so, that the training of the hand naturally precedes, and is preparatory to, that of all the other senses. However this may be, prison statistics furnish some pretty good evidence towards its corroboration and of the serious consequences that follow the neglect of manual training. Out of a large number of convicts, while seventy-five per cent. could read and write, only fifteen per cent. had learned a trade.

WARREN ROBINSON,
Instructor in the Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wisconsin.

THE PLACE OF WRITING IN THE LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION OF TRUE DEAF-MUTES, ESPE- CIALLY THE LESS INTELLIGENT.*

THE pure oral method at present predominates in the education of the deaf. The characteristic features of this method are that speech and lip-reading not only form the aim but also the basis of the entire instruction. Its first maxim is that "the child should acquire language through speech." In teaching language through speech, the pure oral method employs the most difficult means possible. Even the hearing child does not proceed in this way, for it first learns to *hear* language. Only after the ear has performed its task and the child has been put in the passive possession of language through the hearing, does the active development of language through speech begin. In

* Translated from the *Organ der Taubstummen-Anstalten in Deutschland und den deutschredenden Nachbarländern* for November, 1897, by PAUL LANGE, M. A., Principal of the Evansville, Indiana, School.

every nursery we find a verification of the fact that *the child understands language before being able to utter it*. Learning to speak is the last and most difficult step in the acquisition of language. To this may be added the acquisition of writing as the highest form of language attainment. The mastery of this purely artificial form of presenting language is accomplished only by systematic instruction at school.

In what order of succession should these processes of language acquisition occur with the deaf-mute? Naturally the order must be different from that of hearing children. With the deaf-mute the eye takes the place of the ear. He must first learn to see language, as he lacks the ear as a receptive organ. The German method of instructing the deaf is based upon the supposition that the movements of the organs of speech are sufficiently visible to permit of the comprehension of spoken language. Among members of the profession it is unnecessary for me to dwell at length upon the insufficiency of the movements of the lips for the clear and intelligible comprehension of speech through the medium of the eye. The movements of the lips of the person speaking may be likened to stenographic characters, whose meaning can be comprehended only after thorough familiarity with the full articulation of words. The only way of accurately presenting language in its different elements to the eye of the deaf-mute is through the medium of *writing*, which for this reason seems especially adapted for the *first presentation* of language. It is evident at the first glance that the deaf-mute learns the written characters much more readily and rapidly than he can give the articulate sounds, and that language in the form of writing or print is more readily and correctly understood than the ocular sound-pictures on the mouth of a person speaking. Experience teaches us daily that lip-reading is not at all a sure means of language perception,

~~different~~ with individual children, but generally covers a ~~period~~ of from three to four years. Another proof of the ~~difficulty~~ of learning to speak may be found in the circumstance that many children, in the empirical process of ~~speech~~ acquisition, learn to pronounce some sounds but ~~poorly~~ or not at all, so that special assistance and practice ~~must~~ be given the child when it goes to school. The ~~objection~~ may be raised that our pupils are older, and ~~therefore~~ more able to comprehend and imitate the movements of speech than the small hearing child. Even if we concede this, the deaf-mute child still has the greater difficulties to contend with. Articulation is presented to his senses of sight and touch, which afford but imperfect pictures and sensations of the vocal sounds. In spite of this great obstacle, we attempt to accomplish the aim of articulation instruction in a comparatively short time. The history of the pure oral method is very instructive on this point. Since the necessity of clear enunciation for the deaf has become recognized, the time of purely technical speech practice has been constantly increased. Schoettle, in his "Handbuch," published in 1874, claimed that all the different vocal sounds could be acquired by the entire class in from eight to ten weeks, or twelve weeks at the most. Arnold already required six months with his brightest scholars, while at the present time the whole first year is devoted to purely mechanical speech. The pure oral method, in basing its primary language instruction on speech, acts wholly in contradiction to the accepted principle of all elementary instruction—to proceed from the easy to the difficult.

A further defect of the oral method is that speech-teaching is begun with separate vocal sounds. Not even the simple vocal sound by itself is to be taught according to the precepts of the leading authorities, but, instead, they require the separation of the single sound into its

elements, "into the positions and movements which in their simultaneous co-operation constitute the sound."*

In this way it is expected that the pupil will be familiarized with these elements of sound. The deaf-mute child can, however, be taught to reproduce the vocal sounds without needing to be familiarized with the individual movements and actions of the organs of speech. The movements of oral expression ought rather from the very beginning to be produced, so far as possible, as purely reflex actions, in order to make speech a spontaneous and rapid form of thought expression. Only in the cultivation of finished speech in the upper classes is it possible successfully to teach the pupils conscious definite articulate movements. The cause of the unintelligible articulation of our pupils is mainly to be attributed to the circumstances that in spite of much supplementary practice of the combinations of sounds they do not attain the proper phonetic *ensemble*—the natural blending of the different sound elements of the word. For the same reason, the deaf-mute may be able to pronounce correctly the several sounds of a word individually, while the word as a whole remains unintelligible, the different sounds not being uttered in their correct relation to one another, thus in a certain degree disturbing the sound equilibrium. Song, for example, teaches us how the intelligibility of a word suffers if its rhythm is changed. To acquire this rhythm of speech from the very start must be the chief aim of the first instruction in articulation.

The reason why the pure oral method begins with separate vocal sounds is mainly that it wishes to accelerate speech-teaching as much as possible in order to be able to proceed with language instruction proper. The recognition of the fact that the German method can find its justification only in the attainment of good speech has,

* Vatter, "The Instruction of the Deaf in Speech," Part 1, page 30.

under the guidance of Vatter and Arnold, in some degree checked this acceleration. A further extension of the time of purely mechanical articulation instruction is hardly possible without seriously handicapping the language instruction proper. This constraint is, however, removed if we begin with writing, and thus give articulation instruction opportunity for proper development. I believe that this would prove of great advantage to the acquisition of good speech. The vocal organs of our small pupils require delicate and careful treatment. With the primary articulation instruction there is always danger of overtaxing the capacity of the larynx of our pupils. With many deaf-mutes the vocal cords have become enfeebled through many years of inactivity, and therefore require tender care in the primary classes. The development of the vowel sounds generally occasions too vigorous a vibration of the vocal cords, often causing permanent injury to the voice. While the hearing child exerts but little force in its first articulation practice, setting the mechanism of speech in motion with slight effort, we demand too great development of force from our pupils in their first articulation practice of separate sounds. By beginning articulation instruction with whole words, selected with regard to their ease of pronunciation, this evil may be avoided. In language there are, strictly speaking, no separate sounds. The hearing child begins its articulation with combinations of sounds. Schibel long ago suggested that articulation instruction be begun with whole words as speech-units.* More recently this suggestion has been seconded by Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, one of the most zealous champions of the pure oral method. Paul, in his comprehensive treatise on the vowel *A*, also expresses doubt as to the practicability of beginning with separate sounds.

The objection is raised against the use of whole words

* 77th Annual Report of the Zurich Institution, page 8.

that their articulation is too difficult at the start, and that the child at the most catches only the movements of the lips and jaws and imitates these but awkwardly. With the first attempt, it is true, the articulation will hardly be distinct. This, however, is also the case with the hearing child, whom it takes a long time to acquire each new word. The imperfect pronunciation of common words at the start is wholly in accordance with the course of natural development. It need not be feared that the first imperfections of speech will become permanent defects, for regular instruction will remedy them. From the rough outline, the teacher must develop the complete and distinct word. In teaching the separate sound, this labor must still be performed. It is, moreover, very doubtful whether the greatest difficulty lies with the teaching of the whole word. The development of the separate vowel is probably more difficult than learning it in a word, for in the word the vowel sound often necessarily forms a glide from one consonant to another. I shall attempt to prove this with the word *bitte* [German for *please*, pronounced bittā]. In speaking this word, the tongue in moving from “b” to “t” passes through the position of “i,” which sound naturally thrusts itself between “b” and “t,” even though in a whisper at first. The “e” is also a natural vocal result of the relaxing of the speech from the “t” sound. In this word alone, four different sounds are acquired. That “papa” and “mama” are also proper words for primary articulation is well known. With the teaching of separate sounds, moreover, some sounds are acquired which do not occur in real speech, because, as Vatter rightly puts it, “a certain sound, taken by itself, may be physiologically correct, yet in the spoken word it may be entirely different.”* In the articulation of whole words, the separate vocal sounds are most readily and correctly attained; and for this reason also it is ad-

* Vatter, “The Instruction of the Deaf in Speech,” Part 1, page 28.

visible to begin articulation instruction with common words. The question of using whole words, however, is of minor importance in deciding the main question of the position of writing. Any other method of articulation teaching could be used. The main point in beginning with writing is that, by this method, the acquisition of language does not depend on the attainment of speech, thus allowing to the latter a more gradual development.

In the pure oral method, lip-reading is taught simultaneously with the articulation of separate sounds. As but a small number of our vocal sounds produce clearly visible movements of the organs of speech, the separate sounds can only be rendered visible by very careful and clear enunciation, such as is not usual in ordinary natural speech. It is absolutely impossible that the pupils of the lowest class "should be able to read readily from the lips what they are to comprehend and to express orally."* Teachers and pupils must therefore use distinctly articulated speech. In this deviation from natural speech lies the main difficulty of articulation instruction with both teacher and pupil. With the use of natural speech from the beginning, no greater exertion in proportion to the volume of speech would be necessary than with the instruction in the public schools. This would be possible if the lip-reading were based on language already acquired by the pupil. This can only be done by beginning language instruction with the written form. Primary instruction in lip-reading can then begin with whole word-pictures, which really form the basis of intelligible lip-reading. In the same manner as we who can hear do not understand words of a foreign language heard for the first time, the deaf-mute is unable to read from the lips and understand words whose meaning and sound representation in writing he has not yet learned. In beginning

* Roessler, "First Reader and Language Book," 2d edition, page 3

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with the written form of words, a good foundation is laid for intelligent lip-reading.

Beginning our instruction with articulation renders regular class instruction very difficult, as articulation teaching is mainly individual. This difficulty is remedied to some extent if the articulation class is divided into classes of three or four pupils with a corresponding number of additional teachers. In the primary instruction with classes, there is danger that the speech of individual pupils will suffer. The oral method must strive to keep a class of from eight to ten pupils on as equal a plane of speech as possible. Among hearing children even, some children learn to speak more rapidly than others; with the deaf this is still more the case. By basing the elementary instruction upon writing, regular class instruction is facilitated. More attention can be given at the same time to individual instruction in speech.

Under the pure oral method, the regular language instruction has its defects as well as the articulation instruction. It is surely a disadvantage to begin with speech-teaching and thus delay language instruction proper almost a year. While the hearing child already possesses a considerable comprehension of language before it begins the study of the technical side of language, we give our pupils long and tiresome exercises in mechanical speech without being able to impart by this means any real command of language worth mentioning. It must be admitted that the acquisition of a small number of isolated words and such forms of language as are used in answering the simple questions "What is this?" "How is this?" etc., and that only in the singular number, forms but a limited vocabulary for the first school year, and one scarcely adapted for the expression in language of the already well-developed thought-life of our pupils. It is hardly sufficient to permit of the discarding of the sign-language. The written form, on the contrary, allows

us, after a short preliminary course of instruction in writing, to proceed very soon to regular language instruction and to make much better progress in it than is possible by the pure oral method.

Another defect of the prevailing German method is that it requires a purely synthetic course of language instruction. Attention has already been called to the synthetic character of the first articulation instruction. In the primary language instruction this character is still more apparent and its results are detrimental to the acquisition of correct language. The first words expressing thought occur singly. The nouns are first used without their articles, which are added considerably later. The singular and plural forms of nouns must necessarily, under the pure oral method, be taught a long time apart. The adjectives are first taught without regard to their proper syntactical relation to the noun. Here again we notice that under the pure oral method the living organism of language is dissected into its elements and thus presented to the child. This is the main source of the so-called "deaf-mutisms." As the tendency of our pupils towards aphoristic language demonstrates, it is very difficult to develop in them the faculty of using words in their proper connection with each other. *The real element of human speech is the simple sentence.* Language ought to be presented to the pupil in this form as soon as possible. It may be contended that the hearing child in the beginning also uses only disconnected words. With the hearing child, however, circumstances are entirely different. It hears language, as a rule, in its complete correct form as expressed in sentences. That it speaks at first in broken words merely demonstrates that it is unable to utter the complete sentence. That it has, however, already mastered it *aurally* is evident from the fact that it always repeats from a sentence those words which determine its meaning. Here we clearly perceive that the hearing child, in its acquisition of speech,

only slowly overtakes its ability to understand language. But if we begin with writing, we can at once teach words in whole sentences in their correct syntactical relation. This method of introduction to language will at the same time solve the important question of grammar. If from the very beginning language is used in its correct syntactical form, a foundation is at once laid for the correct use of language. The lack of grammatical training in our pupils, which was so keenly felt in pursuing Hill's course of language instruction and which forced the pure oral method to return to the principles of the old grammatical school, may be attributed to the circumstance that Hill based his language instruction on speech. Hill's doctrine, "Develop the deaf child's language as far as possible in the same manner in which the hearing child acquires language," can be perfectly carried out by the use of writing.

The oral method, moreover, is not always able to consider the psychological interest of the pupil in its choice of the first language taught, for the words chosen with regard to their ease of articulation are but seldom such as will best awaken the child's interest. A single glance at our text-books will prove this. With language instruction based on writing, proper attention may be given to the selection of language adapted to awaken the child's interest, since in this case language instruction is not limited in the choice of its vocabulary to words easy to articulate.

In answer to my criticisms of the pure oral method, it may be objected that "the possibility of educating the deaf in this manner has long been clearly demonstrated by experience." This possibility has, indeed, been demonstrated. Experience, however, also teaches us that this possibility is but seldom realized. For this reason Arendt, of Berlin, surely an unquestioned supporter of the pure oral method, was prompted to write in the "Organ" last year as follows: "There are, indeed, deaf-mutes who, by

reason of their tolerable command of language and lip-reading ability, do not show their infirmity much, but they are rare exceptions. What is often ascribed to the school may, perhaps, properly be attributed to a considerable possession of hearing, to the complete acquisition of language before becoming deaf, or to brilliant talents, further promoted by private instruction and ample help." With such pupils, and under favorable conditions in other respects, the obstacles to the success of the pure oral method can, indeed, be overcome.

With the true deaf-mutes, especially the less intelligent, the pure oral method often falls short of the desired result. For them, therefore, another method of teaching language must be sought. Speech and lip-reading as the *aim* of instruction need not be wholly abandoned nor given a secondary place, for these acquisitions are not beyond the reach even of our less intelligent pupils. But the way to language through speech and lip-reading is too difficult for them. The pure oral method confesses this in its present demands for a change in the outward organization of our schools, without which it declares that it cannot accomplish its aims. Aside from the difficulty of obtaining these demands and from the fact that their fulfillment lies in the indefinite future, there is no certainty that, if they were granted, the promised results would be realized. However much more favorable school facilities might aid the instruction, they cannot be regarded as determining the success of a certain method. If we do not accomplish the aims of our language instruction within a period of eight years, with four hours of daily instruction especially devoted to the child, we must not expect too much of measures solely intended for the conduct of our pupils outside of school hours. The most important matter with respect to the attainment of the desired aim in instruction is the perfection of the method used. This can be accomplished only by founding the method on

psychological principles, by conforming it to the mental life of our pupils. I believe I have proved that the pure oral method does not conform to the natural process of the acquisition of language. Its chief defect is that it is founded on speech, and that speech is used from the beginning as the sole means of imparting instruction.

How did the German method come to lay this undue emphasis upon speech? If we consult the existing textbooks for information, we receive no satisfactory answer to this question. The reasons usually given are limited to the following: "The deaf-mute must be restored to the society of the hearing. This can be accomplished only through speech, therefore speech must be made the basis of his instruction in language." In this conclusion the last and highest good of our instruction is correctly indicated; it is wrong, however, to take this goal as our starting point.

It has not been conducive to the best development of our instruction that from its very beginning preconceived theories concerning the scope of the two forms of language, spoken and written, should have determined the character of our method of language instruction. Heinicke's doctrine that human thought is possible only in spoken words still seems to influence our method of language instruction. It cannot be denied that the deaf-mute can be brought into complete intercourse with the hearing only through the mastery of speech. There is also no doubt that the deaf-mute ought to be made thoroughly conversant with both forms of language, speech and writing. The pure oral method, however, is based on the theory that a real association of language with thought is only possible when language has been acquired through the medium of speech. For this reason, and for this reason only, writing is given a secondary place. This course might possibly promise success, if the acquisition of elementary language were sought *exclusively* by means

of speech, and writing were taught only after a thorough mastery of speech was acquired. With the almost simultaneous use of both speech and writing, as is deemed necessary under the pure oral method, it is highly improbable that speech will immediately become the prevailing means of thought expression. Our pupils will always choose the form that is most readily comprehended, and with them this is certainly writing. With the hearing person the close union between the sound, the meaning, and the syntactical relations of the word comes from years of exclusive practice of this union through the hearing; it is only later that, through reading and writing, the written characters also are brought into an almost equally close union with the meaning of the words. In the same manner, *vice versa*, in the mind of the deaf-mute, through practice in reading and writing, may be established a close relation between language and thought, which gradually may be developed into a good oral command of language. In this manner, also, speech can be brought under the control of the mechanism of thought and be developed into an organic function of the mind. Experience teaches us that all kinds of language signs can be so closely identified with the meaning of a word that the sign will immediately recall the word, and, *vice versa*, the word the sign, provided there has been sufficient practice with both. The doctrine of the association of language with speech must not, therefore, be regarded as determining the necessity of beginning our language instruction with speech rather than writing.

I must consider another objection raised against writing, which is especially emphasized by Hill.* He says that this is unquestionably the form of language that is least congenial to the deaf-mute. This can be the case only so long as the meaning of the language presented to him in writing is not readily comprehended by him. So

Hill, "Guide," page 219.

long as the deaf-mute is unable to read fluently and intelligently, what he reads cannot create a strong impression on his intellect and feelings. The command of language is the determining factor in the question. Lip-reading also depends on the command of language. Writing is certainly more easily, rapidly, and clearly understood than lip-reading. It is reasonable to believe that the natural comprehension of the deaf-mute is as quick as that of the hearing person. The reading of script is considerably more rapid than lip-reading, which always requires slow articulation, and therefore has a dragging influence on the train of thought. Lip-reading demands a much closer attention in order merely to catch the words spoken than does the reading of script ; the latter, therefore, leaves the mind more free to comprehend the thought expressed.

In view of the foregoing considerations we reach this conclusion : *The language instruction of true deaf-mutes, especially of the less intelligent, should begin with the written form of language.* Of course, the method of language-teaching must always be the intuitive method.

Every suggestion towards changing our fundamental method of language instruction must demonstrate that this change will not jeopardize but rather promote speech and lip-reading, its highest aims. The chief reason of the decided opposition from German teachers to Mr. Heidsiek's efforts at reform may be attributed to the circumstance that the proposed use of the sign-language in our language-teaching seems to jeopardize the success of speech and lip-reading. The fullest possible development of speech will always be regarded by German teachers as their chief aim. Only brief suggestions can here be given as to the way in which that aim can best be attained when the language instruction is based upon the written form. The articulation teaching should be associated directly with the language instruction based upon writing. The reading-lessons should begin as much as possible with

clear combinations of sound, in words selected with regard to their phonetic character. Conversation should be used according to the command of language and power of speech acquired, and should gradually *be made the chief means of instruction*. Regular instruction in articulation and lip-reading, in addition to their use in all the ordinary subjects of instruction, should be carried on as independent branches throughout the whole course. Reading should form the basis for the presentation of every new subject of instruction.

I should like to make a few remarks with respect to the suggestion that speech and lip-reading should be pursued as separate branches of instruction throughout the whole course. The frequent complaints that the favorable results obtained in the lower classes do not prove permanent in the higher classes, and prove still less so in after life, demonstrate that the pure oral method is not always able to impart good and permanent speech. This defect cannot be wholly remedied by occasional mechanical practice in articulation. It rather appears necessary to teach technical speech—in addition to the regular elementary instruction in the lower classes—as a separate branch of study throughout the whole course of instruction. Real training of the voice and in articulation can only be accomplished to the fullest extent with advanced pupils. Only in the higher classes can they be trained to a “conscious” control of the organs of speech.

Independent systematic instruction in lip-reading is very desirable, considering the great importance of this accomplishment. On this point I have the support of Dr. Gutzmann, who, in fact, blames the institutions for the deaf for not having this instruction in their curriculum.* The reading of the speech of every-day life is indeed so high an aim that it is attained only in excep-

* Dr. Gutzmann, “The Obstacles of Language and their Remedy,” page 51.

tional cases. But systematically conducted practice in lip-reading may contribute greatly towards this end, as is proved by the results often obtained with semi-mutes. *The main requirements of good lip-reading is a good command of language.* This must therefore first be attained. Articulation and lip-reading are, comparatively speaking, narrowly limited technical subjects, and their attainment can safely be expected if a good command of language has been acquired. The deaf-mute can most easily acquire a good command of language by first being taught through writing. Even the most zealous advocates of the "natural" method of teaching modern languages to hearing persons through the ear make the reader the basis of their instruction. How much more must this be done with the deaf! With them, lip-reading performs a similar office to that of the comprehension of a foreign idiom through the ear by hearing persons. If, in learning a foreign language, we were to depend on the hearing alone, the same obstacles would be encountered that we notice with the pure oral method—difficulty in comprehending the language and uncertainty of the result. The acquisition of a foreign language through the ear alone is only possible when one sojourns in the country where it is spoken. In this case only can the "natural" method be provided with the lavish abundance of examples and incentives necessary for its success. A course of language *instruction* divests itself of the certainty of the result, if it is not based upon writing from the beginning.

Experience proves that the thorough mastery of a foreign language requires the ability to read it. We also know from experience that we can more readily comprehend a foreign language in its written than in its spoken form. Even in our mother tongue, when hearing strange words—as proper names, for instance—it is not always possible to understand them correctly through the hearing, and we must ask for their written form. By reading an

article we often grasp its meaning better than by merely hearing it read. How much more is this the case with the deaf-mute, whose ability to read the lips never affords the certainty that he has correctly understood what was said! The claim that reading should form the basis of the presentation of every new subject of instruction may therefore be considered as justified.

The advantages of basing the language instruction of the deaf upon the written form may be summed up as follows: It permits a more rapid and thorough mastery of language than the pure oral method, and also enables us to teach speech and lip-reading in a more natural manner and to a greater degree of perfection.

A too hasty judgment of my suggestions may lead one to find in them a return to the old French method, or more particularly to that of the old Vienna school. My position in regard to speech and lip-reading as the highest aim of deaf-mute instruction refutes such a charge. In the most important points, my suggestions even go back to Bonet's classical foundation of our instruction, and yet they cannot be regarded as a mere repetition of those old methods. If, in our time, we attempt to solve the problem of language instruction by the use of writing, we do so from an entirely different point of view and with other aids. First of all, another method of language instruction and an improved method of articulation teaching are at our disposal. The pure oral method has the great merit of having brought technical instruction in speech to a perfection which the old methods wholly lacked. This merit of the method will never be forgotten, though the instruction of the deaf may choose other paths as its own. If these paths give promise of more readily leading our pupils to the highest aims of our instruction, no one will be more willing to follow them than the supporters of the pure oral method. My suggestions have not been prompted by a feeling of opposition to the oral method,

but from the conviction that our instruction must be more deeply rooted in order more surely to attain its aims. In pursuing these aims, the German teachers of the deaf stand on common ground, and I therefore entertain the hope that my suggestions will find a fair and unprejudiced reception.

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THE CHURCH MISSION IN NEW YORK.*

OLD St. Ann's Church, New York, did considerable mission work for the silent people in other cities between 1852 and 1872. Thus the way was opened for the incorporation of "The Church Mission to Deaf-Mutes," in October, 1872, the society whose twenty-sixth anniversary we celebrate to-day. St. Ann's thenceforth attended to the local pastoral work and the society to the general.

Our society pioneered church work among deaf-mutes throughout our country. Then local diocesan missions were formed, enjoying the faithful ministrations of clergymen, most of whom were deaf-mutes themselves. This subdivision of the extensive field contributed largely to the efficiency of the work. Now our society is responsible for services for deaf-mutes only in the dioceses of New York, Long Island, Newark, and Connecticut. They are maintained in ten different places (in churches kindly offered by rectors and vestries) by Rev. Dr. John Chamberlain, two deaf-mute lay-readers—Messrs. Brown and Mann—and myself.

In conducting these services we use the sign-language, for signs are to the deaf what sounds are to the hearing.

* From the Address of the General Manager at the Twenty-sixth Anniversary of the Church Mission to Deaf-Mutes, New York, held in St. Thomas Church, New York, Sunday, December 18, 1898.

We also use the single-hand manual alphabet to spell words and sentences. We spell most proper names and also the text of the sermon, but the flow of thought goes on in the sign-language. Our graphic, pantomimic method of conveying ideas is common to the deaf-mutes of France and the United States. We trust it will eventually be used by those in all countries. Thus they could hold converse with each other irrespective of the spoken language of each country.

In the missions of our society we deal with those who have been educated in various Institutions. They can read and write the English language and can therefore use their Bibles, prayer-books, and hymnals. By signs we can make the meaning of English words and sentences clearer, and can also preach the gospel to large congregations.

There are upwards of forty thousand deaf-mutes in the United States. About one-third are young children at their homes. About one-third are pupils in the hundred Institutions in various States of our country. The other third have been educated and are fighting the battle of life. They should be reached by efforts to bring them into pastoral relations. Thus shall they realize more and more the meaning of the Saviour's gracious word Ephphatha, Be opened, and be fitted for the life where human imperfections shall be done away.

During the year ending September 30, 1898, our society expended on its general missionary work \$4,945.94, \$411.54 being used to help sick and needy deaf-mutes. Deaf-mutes generally support themselves in some useful calling. When they are out of work we try to get situations for them, but daily cases of trouble and distress are arising in this great community which we must relieve. In addition to the sum which passed through the hands of our general treasurer, the Brooklyn division reports the receipt of \$1,240.65 to sustain the general work,

\$303.85 having been used for the relief of deaf-mutes in sickness and trouble.

Our society maintains the Gallaudet Home for Aged and Infirm Deaf-Mutes in the State of New York, on a farm of one hundred and fifty-six acres by the Hudson river between New Hamburg and Poughkeepsie. It has twenty-six inmates—thirteen women and thirteen men. Three are deaf and dumb and blind. All of the inmates have been educated but have become disabled. Religious services are held in the chapel, the Holy Communion being celebrated generally once a month. The Home has an endowment fund of \$20,000, Miss Catharine Comstock's legacy of \$5,000 having been added this year. The receipt of \$6,666.66 from the estate of Miss Mary A. Edson enabled our treasurer to pay off the mortgage of \$7,500, so that our beautiful Home property is free from debt. From the building fund we have also expended \$1,199.15 for interest, insurance, and repairs.

The domestic department of the Home is most efficiently managed by the Board of Lady Managers. They report that for the year ending September 30, 1898, they received \$4,527.09 and expended, including a debt of \$616.96 remaining at the end of the previous year, \$3,808.68, leaving a balance of \$718.41.

The Farm Department is in charge of the Standing Committee of our Trustees. It received in donations \$927.20 and from sales \$1,114.14. The value of its products used for the Home, and other services rendered, amounted to \$1,267.21. We are thankful that the farm has been so successful, though it was in debt \$383.61. We need a larger income for the Home in order that a number of worthy applicants may be received.

It is a great encouragement to us to have the privilege of presenting this brief statement to-day in St. Thomas' Church by the courtesy of its kind-hearted rector. We hope to gain many new friends who will remember us in

their prayers and gifts, and we express our hearty thanks to the old friends who have sustained us for so many years.

Our society is managed by a Board of twenty-five Trustees, the Bishop of New York being President *ex officio*. The Vice-Presidents are Rev. Edward H. Krans, LL. D., and Mr. E. A. Hodgson; the Secretary, Mr. A. L. Willis; the Treasurer, Mr. William Jewett, No. 89 Grand street; the General Manager, Rev. Thomas Gallaudet, D. D.; and the Assistant General Manager, Rev. John Chamberlain, D. D.

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THE PRACTICAL BENEFITS OF METHODS COMPARED.

IN seeking to effect any constitutional change by which we expect to benefit a community or any portion thereof, the exercise of an unbiased opinion, a mature judgment, and an enlightened conscience are indispensable essentials.

The subject of methods, no matter how we regard it, has become a delicate point about which much has been said, and doubtless much still remains to be said. In submitting my observations here, I do so as one of a common brotherhood laboring in a common cause, seeking to alleviate the affliction of the deaf as a class.

At the outset, I would ask my readers to look beyond the narrow bounds of our deaf-mutes' school life, and view them in the more expansive, responsible, and practical sphere of their business life, wherein they are made to feel that they have entered upon the sterner realities. They have been aroused from the lethargy of their childhood, and already feel that "life is real and life is earnest,"

and if they would make their way they must learn to fight their own battles in the world.

As we view them now, they have gained a few marches on their childhood, and are capable of vindicating their right to a hearing on a subject with which they are personally acquainted and greatly concerned. Why so little respect has hitherto been given to the opinions of the educated deaf, anent the real practical value of the various methods in use, still remains a mystery. That such has been and is still the case goes without question, yet the adult deaf of to-day are the pupils of yesterday, and, as such, many of them constituted the very cream of our classes and the pride and honor of our teachers.

Having recently perused a pamphlet containing briefly the opinions of a large number of the leaders in deaf-mute education in the United States, the continent of Europe, and Great Britain, among whom are men of all persuasions concerning the value of methods, I formed the conclusion that there existed a certain definite principle in every expression of opinion which, if put into practice, would bring the best possible good to our pupils. The principle to which I refer lies in the prevailing desire to give the deaf pupil the greatest available benefit during his school life. Principles, however, like doctrines, are stubborn things to establish. It is easier to arouse public feeling over some fad or some seeming miracle, such as teaching the dumb to speak is often regarded, than over a great principle which may involve the lasting good of thousands of our fellow-men.

To exercise whatever practical and beneficial methods of educating the deaf we possess, irrespective of all personal likes or dislikes, seems at once to be the principle that must ever govern our actions, if we would give them the greatest possible benefit while at school. Entirely to discard the usefulness of the manual method that the pure oral method may be tried means irreparable loss

and deprivation to scores. The former through long years has been tested and tried and has proved worthy. The latter can never, under the present circumstances of the great majority of the deaf, prove as beneficial and useful as the former. Unite the two methods, which comprise the best we know, and we get the model system.

Seeing so much experience has been gained of late years on the value of the methods of instruction, everything now seems in readiness for the exercise of that principle which will lead men on every side to sacrifice all petty preferences for the common good of the cause, and the greater good of the deaf everywhere. Let this principle be adhered to and whims and fads shall vanish, and then shall "each man find his own in all men's good, and all men work in noble brotherhood." Once let principles rule in place of prejudices, and we shall soon hail with delight the general adoption of the combination of methods which will bring to our deaf the greatest possible benefit; and our aim should be nothing short of this, irrespective of mental conditions, social circumstances, or degrees of civilization. It is evident to all that unrest and dissatisfaction prevail among the best of our adult deaf, as they witness the supplanting of the manual method by the so-called pure oral method, particularly by city school-boards throughout Great Britain, which seem heedless of the dear experience obtained by the London School-Board.

Doubtless there is something genuine underlying the agitation existing among the adults of the country on this point, as they themselves have little to gain or lose now; the majority of them have, to their dismay, discovered that their attainments in speech and lip-reading, so laboriously acquired, have brought upon them great vexation and disappointment in business life. Two things weigh tremendously with them; these are that they have proved that speech is of little practical use because it is so unre-

liable and writing is preferable, and they feel the chagrin of having been obliged to learn it, whilst the time might have been used to much better purpose in acquiring a better use of good English.

How numerous are the instances of pupils who have been drafted into the busy work-a-day world with no other prospect than to suffer irretrievable loss in consequence of the crudeness of the method and other inefficiencies to which they were subject while under tuition. Some were confined to the manual method who would have advanced rapidly in lip-reading and in speech if they had had the opportunity of learning, and others would have received a much more thorough education if to oral instruction the manual method had been united. Such unnecessary consequences result from lack of unanimity and from other serious impediments, which continue to hinder possible progress towards the establishing of the Combined System everywhere, by which alone the best possible benefit can be brought to the deaf.

Of recent years great progress has been made in deaf-mute education amidst oppositions and one-sidedness; ways and means have been promulgated and practised, and various schemes have had, and continue to have, their votaries. When we measure the value of means used by the results obtained and by their usefulness for practical purposes, we ask, does the pure oral method commend itself to the educated deaf and those who are in a position to judge its value?

To judge the merits of any method of education from an exclusive basis, without looking to practical issues, seems absurd; yet this is often done.

Only a few years have elapsed since inquiry was made in Great Britain by a Royal Commission concerning deaf-mute education, but this inquiry was confined to schools and children. A better and more reliable idea of the value of methods would be obtained could we have such

an inquiry into the practical results of methods as seen in adult life among the deaf. We live in a utilitarian age and no superficial excellence can stand as a criterion of practical utility. Flowery reports and platform displays may stimulate public philanthropy and arouse the applause of the uninitiated, but they must ever pall on the minds of practical workers among the deaf, who alone know their actual mental state. The few bright pupils who are always put to the front reveal nothing of the state of the great majority.

Every child admitted to school is entirely dependent on the teacher for due preparation for business life, and any course not directly conducive to that end is loss to the child. Outside the profession, it is commonly thought that the deaf only need to be taught to spell on their fingers or speak, and they are thus almost fitted for life. Those immediately concerned with them know too well that the greatest requirement of the deaf is language. Articulation, lip-reading, finger-spelling, and signing are but the means used to the great end.

The question here suggests itself, by which method can our deaf pupils acquire the best use of language? On this point educators differ and must ever differ, whilst observations are confined to the school-room. The object of this paper is to view the practical results of the methods, that an idea may be gained as to which method confers the greatest benefit on the deaf as a class.

Few have such exceptional opportunities for witnessing the real practical use of speech to the deaf as those who are officially engaged among the adult deaf, and none are better fitted to compare the merits of rival methods from a practical point of view. Let us now take a glance at the adult deaf in two classes, the orally taught and those taught under the Combined System.

The pure oral pupil, well equipped in articulation and lip-reading from the teacher's point of view, and having

received the encouragement and approval of all around him for years, emerges from school, that haven of peace and good-will, into a workshop full of apprentices, where he becomes the butt for jokes and jeering laughter. His speech, but recently the pride of his teacher, becomes the incentive for railing mockery. It is not considered that this deaf speaking lad was once absolutely dumb.

Let us hear the experience of one who has had to do with pupils from the best oral schools. He says: "I have got many youths apprenticed and have never been asked for the orally taught. On inquiry I find that masters and others *write* their directions, and in many cases make signs, so as to prevent misunderstanding and having goods spoiled. One of the most serious discouragements to the orally taught is that hearing lads laugh at the peculiarity of their voice, and thus irritate them." The orally taught themselves soon find out that employers cannot rely on verbal directions, but invariably resort to writing, and, what is more humiliating, to the signs their teachers taught them to despise. The deaf taught under the Combined System find, to their pleasure and profit, that the manual alphabet is almost as well known by hearing work-fellows as it was amongst old school-fellows.

An instance of the ridicule to which the deaf speaking working class are subject was brought to my notice, but recently, by the deaf person himself. This person was taught by one of the leading oralists in Great Britain, and, being of good family, he was greatly encouraged to speak, and was led to understand that his speech was good. He had just entered as an apprentice to cabinet-making, when, one day, he was told that he had a voice like a cow. This was a mystery to the deaf lad, as, doubtless, his only idea of a cow's voice was based on the size of its mouth when bellowing, and, in consequence, he has never attempted to speak since, but has become an expert at finger-spelling.

However efficient our pupils may become in articulation and lip-reading, how gross an absurdity it seems to forbid them the use of the God-given gift of finger-spelling, which will ever remain a most inoffensive, silent, and, ready means of communication. Deny them its use, and until we can also give them hearing with speech, we cut them off from that privilege of privileges which the deaf hold so dear, namely, the assembling of themselves together for religious worship and social intercourse.

With ease and pleasure deaf-mutes who spell meet together for all kinds of intellectual improvement. They can sit watching "the cunning fingers" threading through any conceivable variety of discourse, and when it is over they will intelligently discuss the merits of what their eyes have seen and their minds received. On the other hand, the best lip-readers frankly acknowledge their inability to derive benefit from ordinary religious addresses or public lectures, hence they are cut off from the gatherings of the hearing public as well as those of the deaf who spell. Hundreds of hearing parents have been deluded and disappointed on this one point. Thinking that by lip-reading their children would be able to derive some good from their minister's sermon, they have taken them to service, but have soon proved it to be an absolute impossibility. Then they come to services for the deaf, and again they are disappointed beyond measure, seeing that among the deaf their speech is of no use, and that the finger-spelling, which the others use so freely, has not been taught them. How differently situated are those who are taught by the Combined System! Their speech and lip-reading can be used whenever necessary and convenient, and at the same time they can hold free converse with the deaf who spell.

Workers among the adult deaf have no need to try to attract the orally taught to their meetings, as was recently reported by a lady inspector in England. Experience

proves that the deaf seek the society of the deaf as naturally as ducks take to the water-pond. It is innate for the deaf to use their hands to express their thoughts, and no substitute known will ever prevent or exterminate this means. A good deal might be said on this very point to show the amount of spirit and vivacity finger-spelling lets into the monotonous life of the average deaf-mute.

What eloquence and music are to the refined ear and the beauty of a landscape to the eye, spelling and signing will ever be to the deaf-mute, and to deprive them of such a blessing is little short of an injustice.

By depriving the deaf of finger-spelling and obliging them to mix with hearing people, instead of the deaf who spell, we subject them to the bitterest isolation. I might relate several cases of deaf persons expert at lip-reading, and particularly good as speakers, who preferred to converse by finger-spelling with myself and others who speak, rather than undergo the necessary strain of carrying on oral conversation. A young lady of my acquaintance, whose speech is excellent, felt such a sense of isolation that at the age of sixteen she learned to spell, that she might associate with the deaf. I have been repeatedly assured by the parents of a deaf speaking girl that she was rapidly entering a state of melancholy, but was saved from it by mixing with the deaf who spell, yet she retains her speech and uses it in conversation with hearing people. The deaf among the deaf can never realize the isolation felt by the deaf in the society of hearing people, no matter how good the speech and lip-reading may be.

The experience of the deaf gentleman referred to in the *Century Magazine* of January, 1897, is undoubtedly one we must regard as a great exception. It ran as follows: "I found that people who came full of interest and with many things to tell me seemed to freeze up and close the fountains of their expression when I presented them with a pencil and tablet, so I learned lip-reading." Practical

experience has taught us that it is much easier to say what we have to say by writing than to attempt one-half as much by speaking in the deliberate, abbreviated, and strained manner necessary to get the orally taught deaf to understand us. I have personally proved this on a great many deaf persons taught by as many different instructors. On the other hand, we find in society generally friends always more willing to exercise this ability to spell than to undergo the annoyance of a labial conversation, which on the part of the deaf is so often muffled and labored.

Speech, however poor, is too valuable to be condemned, but the advocacy which despises the use of good English finger-spelling deserves severe criticism. Give speech to the deaf, if it only be such as enables them to call to a work-mate for a tool from one bench to another; or, for instance, for a hammer, whilst they stand holding the hot bar on the anvil; but, with it, permit them the free use of their ever active fingers for the infinite variety of circumstances in which nothing else will do. Speech may answer for the spasmodic utterances so common in the ordinary home-life of the deaf, and may prove a comfort to sorrowful parents; but for the vast majority of our deaf it must ever occupy a very secondary place in their business activities. Again, we may justly say, the greatest need of the deaf is not speech, but language.

How many there are among our intelligent, spirited deaf who feel it has been a positive loss to them to have been denied the use of finger-spelling. How keenly these persons feel being daily subjected to patronizing friends who exaggerate their speech so much by big mouthings and "prolonged breaths" that they completely bury their words and overwhelm the lip-reader. Only the deaf and their teachers know the grievous hindrance exaggeration is to lip-readers. Again, how various are the circumstances in life in which it is practically impossible to speak

face to face, or in such a way as to facilitate lip-reading, while it is inconvenient to resort to writing ; but by finger-spelling there are few circumstances, indeed, in which we cannot say effectually and rapidly anything whatsoever ; even darkness is not a hindrance. I am personally acquainted with a deaf gentleman of education who, through the medium of finger-spelling, gets every word spoken from the pulpit of the church he attends with hearing friends, and is able to reproduce the chief points of the address for the benefit of the friend who interpreted. I should be glad to hear of the lip-reader who can get the leading points of any ordinary address.

Granted that our deaf are well taught in language, which must ever be the first consideration, finger-spelling lends itself to their comfort, pleasure, and profit, far more than lip-reading. By finger-spelling any two or more deaf-mutes can converse on any subject with which they are acquainted, even if they have never before met, granted that they both know the same language. How different it is with the average lip-reader ! We can easily accept the following, which was brought under my notice in my own district : A deaf lady who was known to pride herself on being able to read the lips, being asked by a visitor, "How is Mr. — to-day ?" innocently replied : "The poor little thing is cutting his teeth and is very fretty." Needless to say, such an absurd mistake could never happen by finger-spelling. Then we have the story of the boy who had been so thoroughly taught to pay no heed to signs that he disregarded the waving hand of a friend who warned him of an approaching horse, and in consequence was knocked down. Having such things before us, and knowing the great advantages of finger-spelling, can we deem that other than a heartless measure which denies these our silent brethren its free use at all times ?

It may be argued that, because governments and school-boards sanction and encourage pure oral instruction to

the abolition of other useful methods, it must have been proved to be the best. Yet such conclusion does not in any way justify the action. Fallacies and superstitions have often prevailed where facts and sound doctrines have seemed to die at their birth. That Mohammed has more adherents than Christ does not demonstrate that Mohammedanism is the noblest and best religion. The right and wrong of religions, as of methods of education, are best proved by the ultimate good arising therefrom. I have no hesitation in saying that if the individual members comprising the school-boards which have adopted oralism could be asked their opinion of the respective methods of deaf-mute instruction, the most they would be able to say would be that they think that speech is a step in advance of the old method. The why and wherefore, few would venture upon. To all such, practical workers would say, Inquire into the practical benefits and uses if you would know its value as a separate method.

If the great advocates of oralism would but ask the adult deaf, as a body, regarding the practical utility of speech in comparison with finger-spelling, they would soon find how little they appreciate all the extra labor lip-reading and speech must ever entail.

Let the extremist leave that little circle of submissive children and follow the old pupils to their work-shops, and there witness the banter they daily bear; let him be with them in their hours of recreation, and he will soon learn how little any of them care about the speech they were taught under such tremendous difficulties. Having done this myself and seen the fruitlessness of a whole school's work on that particular point, I was led to seek a more comprehensive sphere. In all our doubts and disputations on this most vital question, those who have the peace, prosperity, and well-being of the deaf at heart must ever remember that the school life is but as an infant's step compared to the life dependent on it; and

to do them justice in that short period at school, everything depends on the method or methods practised.

If ever a distinct class had a cause upon which they could speak from experience, and therefore with authority, the educated adult deaf are such, yet we have good reason to believe that school-boards and others in authority have entirely disregarded this means of knowing the real value of the various methods.

In conclusion I would say that forcibly to confine deaf-mutes to lip-reading and speech, and to impress them with the thought that it is apish to talk on the fingers, is to cramp and cripple them unnecessarily, and thus to subject them to misunderstanding and injustice all their days. A few mutual signs will do more to enlighten a deaf-mute on any word or subject than hours of verbal diction or study of dictionaries. I speak on behalf of the hundreds who must earn their bread by the sweat of their brows, and who must battle midst the keenest competition in every branch of artisanship.

I have carefully observed with undisturbed and impartial interest the current of events respecting the methods of deaf-mute education, and have paid close attention to the practical usefulness of each, particularly during the past five years of work among the adult deaf; and I here set forth these few observations with the hope that those who are in authority, and who have to do with the providing of education for the deaf, will judiciously consider the end in view, viz., the practical use of speech by the deaf in comparison with finger-spelling and speech combined, before deciding to adopt any distinct and single method to the abolition of others more beneficial and practical. In all, let the words of Spenser be considered—“Not that which men covet most is best, nor that thing worst which men do most refuse.”

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Dundee, Scotland.

A FEW THREADS.

ONE of the ideals towards which a day-school for the deaf is constantly striving is so to unite the home and the school that both may work together as one in the education of the child of their common love and care.

Many are the ties which bind them together, but no stronger or closer bond exists than the daily tasks assigned to the pupils to be performed at home. The parents welcome the lessons, since they show what their children are doing in school. Sometimes they find that their little ones are capable of doing much more than they supposed possible. It often happens that the parents ask for extra work to be done during vacations or the long winter evenings. They see to it, even the poorest and the busiest, that a time and place are provided and something is done. Often little notes are received asking for further light as to what is required, and many of the parents, taking the lessons as a guide, apply and extend the instruction given in the school-room to the affairs of the home.

Therefore it has been found helpful to write a simple direction which may indicate to any one interested just what is wanted, but the children are always carefully told what they are to do.

Most of the lessons are reproduced by means of a copying-pad, and specimens of each lesson given, with a record of the results, are pasted into a book kept for the purpose. The returns are remarkably good, there being very few failures, and the delinquents, when made to read their record for several weeks, are usually so touched with shame and pride as to amend their ways.

It may be of interest if a few of the devices, showing in what way home work is secured from quite young pupils, be briefly outlined.

Read aloud to some one the following sentences. Bring me word on this paper how you read.

The records show that on the several occasions when such a lesson was sent home every child in a class of ten, except one little girl, brought back responses. She did once in a while.

Write about the pictures.

Said pictures were traced from cards, gone over with hektograph ink and so reproduced. They were very simple outline drawings of common actions, like running, walking, washing, wiping, etc.

Answer these questions :

They referred to actions taught during the week, such as these :

Who bought a stick of candy ?
 How did we coo ?
 What did Miss A—— melt ?
 What did Belle and Ella move ?
 What did Mary find ?
 Whose shoulder did John pat ?
 Where did Thomas swing ?
 What did May climb ?
 Who rode on Leslie's back ?
 To whom did Lizzie bow ?

Will some one kindly have —— read each sentence silently ; do what is indicated, then repeat aloud without looking. Please send word how long it takes to do all this.

I have a pin in my hand.
 I pin a leaf to the door.
 I bring a book to you.
 I put my hat on a chair.
 I bring you a box with a button in it.

Every child brought back a written response whenever such a lesson was assigned. The usual time given for a lesson of this length was ten minutes.

Do these things, then write what you did :

Kiss your mother.
 Fill a bottle with₁water.
 Shut the door.
 Touch the stove.
 Move a chair.
 Stand₂by the window.

Point to the sky.
Turn around three times.
Write your name.
Bend a hair pin.

The following type shows a more general scope :

Go somewhere.
Hug some one.
Knock on the window.
Look at something.
Make a paper doll.
Smell of something.
Taste of something.
Feel of something.
Drop something.
Bow to some one.

By home lessons of this sort a great many verbs were reviewed. Once in a while this variation occurred :

Do something, then write what you did. Please give me ten sentences.

The children were told that they might reproduce the examples given in the class instructions, but that it would be better to write about their own people.

Write sentences about these words :

unbuttoned, buttoned again.
untied, tied again.
unpinned, pinned again.
unlaced, laced again.
unhooked, hooked again.

Make sentences, using these words :

bit, did not bite.
ate, did not eat.
bowed, did not bow.
broke, did not break.
brought, did not bring.

Place one object on another object and write about them.

For example : A knife is on a plate.

A spool is on the floor.

I should like ten sentences.

Write ten " in " sentences.

For example : Some water is in a glass.

Some milk is in a pitcher.

Write these words five times apiece.

Then would follow some troublesome words to spell.

Fill in the blanks.

The verbs of sentences well known to the class were usually left out.

Make four sentences with *like to*, four with *likes to*, four with *do not like to*, and four with *does not like to*.

Put two sentences together to make one sentence.

A girl has a fan in one hand.

She has a flower in the other hand.

A book is on the table.

Some papers are on the table.

A girl has a basket on her arm.

She has an umbrella over her head. Etc.

Usually ten sentences were given.

Make five sentences connected by *but*.

Write sentences, using these words :

<i>Past.</i>	<i>Future.</i>
drank	will drink
hung	will hang
blew	will blow
hugged	will hug
knocked	will knock

These brief sketches show something of the home work of one class, the third year in school, in one subject only—language. Besides these, arithmetic and observation lessons were assigned, also review work upon simple stories taught during the week, but no attempt will be made to show what was done along those lines. It may be said, however, that the lessons, though simple, were regular, continuous, and progressive. The departmental plan which affords a teacher full control of one line of work in all the classes, being the method pursued in the school under discussion, makes it possible for the home work to be evenly distributed. Thus, on Monday one teacher gives out language work to all the classes ; on Tuesday another teacher gives out observation lessons (lessons upon weather,

plants, animals, qualities of objects, natural conditions of land and water, preliminary geography, etc.) ; on Wednesday a third teacher gives out story and picture work ; on Thursday the arithmetic teacher has an opportunity to assign lessons in her branch.

On Friday, each child selects a book from the school library, which has branches, so to speak, in each room, books suitable to the pupils of that room being permanently placed there for their convenience. He takes his book home and returns it on Monday. If he has not finished it, he may take it home again on the following Friday.

Practice in penmanship is secured by allowing the pupils to take home their writing-books, and write a certain number of copies. If the writing is not neatly and carefully done, some extra work is required after school. Not many have to stay, and the change from the slanting writing to the vertical has been accomplished by this home work.

The fourth-year class has had longer lessons in language work along the same lines, but involving more difficult constructions. These pupils were taught to tell time. While teaching it, a few lessons similar to these were worked out at home :

Using a large spool to draw around, make ten watches and show me

1. five minutes past ten,
2. ten minutes past eight,
3. twenty minutes past eleven,
4. twenty-five minutes past seven,
5. five minutes of one,
6. ten minutes of four,
7. twenty minutes of two,
8. twenty-five minutes of five,
9. ten minutes past six,
10. ten minutes of six.

Ten watches, showing as many different times, would be drawn, and the question, " What time is it ? " written underneath them.

Letter-writing is begun in this class. It is not often given as a home lesson, but when it is, the direction, "Write a letter of three paragraphs," shows that it must be arranged topically, as the children well understand.

Another daily home lesson is an exercise in the expression of the child's own thought in his own language; it is known as "slips," because written upon slips of paper of a uniform size, holding about fifty words.

This exercise consists of three steps: first, the writing of a new slip, to be corrected by the teacher and given back the next day; second, the copying into books of a corrected slip; third the memorizing of this corrected slip so that it may be written upon the black-board at school the next day without errors. In a class of ten pupils (and doubtless it is equally true of all the other classes, since nearly all do "slips") each child does all of these things every day, and it is the usual thing for all to have perfect reproductions.

When the time for letter-writing comes, as it does once a month, the value of the daily "slip" work is realized, since the letters present fewer examples of wild and unlicensed constructions.

Besides all the work which the children do at home, the parents are requested to send daily a few lines descriptive of some incident or home happening which has been witnessed by the child. These brief accounts are made the basis of an exercise in articulation; in other words, the pupils are helped to overcome their difficulties of pronunciation and phrasing, and are able to give back to their parents a memorized oral account of past events in the household life. An interesting and valuable notion is gained of the ordinary range of expression of the different families, and the children are not limited to the somewhat formal, bookish style of the wholly teacher-taught, but understand the style of the family also, which is, on the whole, very necessary to them. All the lessons

help the parents. It is very noticeable in the case of foreigners, for they learn written English by dint of their patient endeavor to comprehend and further all that is required by the school. In case any errors of spelling or punctuation are made by the parents, it is very easy to make the children understand that once, a long time ago, we grown-ups knew a great many things which we have forgotten now, because we do not do them every day. It amuses them to know that their teacher could make bread when she was a girl in school, but that she has not made any for so long, she cannot make it now. Mother can make bread, and, in so far, she is much wiser than teacher, and is to be respected for her wisdom and ability in her own work.

Many are the threads which go to the weaving of the web of knowledge. Some are in the loving hands of the home circle, many are held and guided by the kindly hands of teachers and friends, some are rudely and violently inserted by the unkind, some are unconsciously added by the indifferent ; but day by day, week by week, the growth is steady and sure, until at last each has a fabric more or less valuable and useful according to his opportunities and powers. A very few of the threads are here depicted. Time and space would not permit more at present, but surely all will agree that a public day-school is a busy and important centre of activities which reach out into the home.

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MISCELLANEOUS.

The Recovery of Hearing.—Reports of cases of supposed recovery of hearing reported in the newspapers are generally found to be untrue when investigated, but three apparently authentic instances have recently been recorded in school papers for the deaf.

The first case is that of Jacob Orleski, of Shamokin, Pa., aged 33, reported in the *Mt. Airy World* of October 13, 1898. His hearing and speech were lost in early infancy, from what cause is not known. They began to return about two years ago, and now he has fully recovered both.

Another case is that of Fred. Hooper, a pupil of the Kentucky School, reported in the *Kentucky Standard* of October 20, 1898. He lost his hearing from cerebro-spinal meningitis and remained entirely deaf for eighteen months. He was admitted to the Kentucky School last year. "He was stone deaf, the loudest sounds making no impression whatever on the sense perception. But last Sunday morning, while he was in the reading-room, the long useless auditory nerve regained its function and his hearing came back as acute as it had ever been in his life. His story is that a boy came up behind him and made a loud noise. It startled him; he heard it, but it was a case where he 'could not believe his ears' at first, but other sounds rushed in on him, he sought some of the officers and entered into conversation with them, and was overjoyed to find that even whispers were distinctly audible to him."

The third instance is reported in the Illinois *New Era* of November 5, 1898. Russel L. Rhodes, of Griggsville, Ill., lost hearing, speech, sight, and the use of his limbs at the age of eighteen months, from diphtheria. When five years old he began to recover, and he finally regained all these lost powers.

The Classification of Methods.—There have been several valuable articles in recent numbers of the Belfast *Messenger* on the question of the classification of methods of instructing the deaf. The Editor of the *Messenger* is one of the probably

few persons who have read carefully the long correspondence on this subject published in the *Annals*, vol. xxxviii, pp. 291-414. He gives his hearty approval to the classification and definitions which have been gradually evolved in connection with the annual 'Tabular Statement of American Schools' published in the January number of the *Annals*, and recommends their adoption, with perhaps two slight modifications, for the British Schools.

One of the modifications he suggests is the substitution of the term "Silent method" for "Manual method," in order to avoid any possible confusion with the term "Manual training." We prefer the term "Manual method" for three reasons: (1) It has been in use for twenty-six years, and its meaning is well understood and generally accepted in American schools; (2) practically it is not found that any confusion occurs with the term "Manual training;" (3) the term "Silent method" is unpleasantly suggestive of the "Silent system" of prison discipline.

The other modification suggested by the Editor of the *Messenger* is to add to the list of methods the term "Compound method," to describe that sub-class of the Combined System which employs all methods in varying degrees *with the same pupils*. The object would be to distinguish this sub-class from the broader "Combined System," the chief characteristic of which is that, recognizing variety in the capacities of deaf children, it aims to choose for each pupil, so far as circumstances permit, such method as seems best adapted for his individual case. Probably it would be well to have this distinction, as the method described by the proposed new term is the most important of the several subdivisions of the Combined System that might be made. We wish it were possible to describe all these subdivisions by appropriate, self-explanatory terms; our own former effort to distinguish them, resulting in more than a dozen rather complicated and generally unsatisfactory subdivisions, for which we could find no better terms than A, B, C, etc., referring to the several definitions, makes us rather doubtful of the success of such an attempt.

In this connection we may refer briefly to a sheet published by Dr. Alexander Graham Bell in September last, entitled

“Methods of Instructing the Deaf in the United States: Statistics Compiled from the *American Annals of the Deaf*,” which seems to show by graphical chart and tabular statement that, in proportion as the Oral method is extending, the Combined System is declining from year to year in the United States. While Dr. Bell compiles his statistics from the *Annals* as stated, he ignores the definition of the Combined System as given in the *Annals*, and uses the term to include only pupils “taught partly by Manual and partly by Oral Methods, and those taught wholly by Manual Methods who receive instruction in Articulation;” he also counts as “taught *wholly* by Oral Methods” those pupils who, for the past three years, have been reported in the *Annals* as “taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method.” Inasmuch as a majority of these pupils are in Combined-System schools, attend chapel exercises conducted in the sign-language, and mingle freely with manually taught pupils out of school hours, while many of their teachers do not hesitate on occasion to make a sign or spell a word by the manual alphabet in the school-room as an adjunct to their oral instruction, it does not seem to us correct to say that they are “taught *wholly* by Oral Methods.”

Oral teaching has made great and gratifying progress in the United States during recent years, but it has not been at the expense of the Combined System; on the contrary, its progress has been largely in Combined-System schools and under the direction of superintendents and principals who are staunch adherents of the Combined System.

Higher Education.—The following statistics of the higher education of pupils of the California Institution are taken from Dr. Wilkinson’s Twenty-third Report. Probably a similar comparison of the statistics of the pupils in all the schools for the deaf in the United States with those of the pupils in common schools, and of the students of Gallaudet College with all the college students of the country, would show a similar larger proportion of the deaf taking a college course:

It may not be out of place in this connection to refer to the record of this Institution in no vainglorious spirit, but in defence of the higher education of the deaf and the blind. When I was in Vienna in the fall

of 1891, and told the Principal of the Royal Institution that six of our graduates had matriculated at the University of California, he smiled incredulously, and said: "It is impossible." I think the Vienna teacher expressed the belief of nearly, if not quite, all the European educators of the deaf. From their point of view, both as to the uses and capacities of the deaf-mute, it is incredible that he can share the curricula and academic honors of those who can hear; but I am sure I am speaking within bounds when I say that the California Institution for the Deaf and the Blind during the thirty-three years of the present administration has matriculated at the University of California and other colleges a larger percentage of its graduates than has come from the common schools of the State. That I am not speaking without authority the following statistics will show. According to the report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the two years ending June 30, 1896, the average enrollment of pupils in the common schools of the State for 1895 and 1896 was 255,198, classified by percentage as follows:

In High Schools	3.86
In Grammar Schools	27.57
In Primary Schools	68.56

The average enrollment of undergraduates for the same two years at the University was 881, or including special and limited students it was 1,162, a percentage of .455 of one per cent. This means that of the 255,198 pupils enrolled in all the public schools of the State, 4.55 pupils in every thousand will be enrolled ultimately at the University, considerably less than a half of one per cent. The Institution has had enrolled 776 pupils, of whom 562 have graduated or been discharged. Of this number, some have died, some have been found of feeble mind, and others have left within a year after entering school, but we will let these offset the special and limited students of the University. There have been 17 graduates who have matriculated at Berkeley and other colleges. This gives a trifle over three per cent., or 30 per thousand, against 4.55 per thousand of pupils from the Primary, Grammar, and High Schools.

But it may be said that while they matriculate, they do not graduate. Here again the statistics show in favor of our pupils. Of the 17 who have entered college, 4 are still undergraduates with every prospect of taking diplomas at the end of their course. This leaves 13 to be accounted for. Of these, 7 have graduated, or over 53 per cent. The class of 1895 at the University graduated 96, and the class of 1896 graduated 118. To be fair to the University, it is necessary to take the number of students for the years 1891 and 1892, when the classes of '95 and '96 entered. By referring to Professor Jones' Illustrated History of the University, page 404, we find the enrollment for 1891 and 1892 was 37 graduates, 386 undergraduates, 81 special and 48 limited, a total of 547. The enrollment of 1892-'93 was 46 graduates, 438 undergraduates, 110 special and 54 limited, a total of 648, or for the two years an average

enrollment of 597. In 1895 there were graduated 96 students, and in 1896 a class of 118, or an average of 107 each year, a rate of 18 per cent. of total enrollment. But it would be more just to omit the "special" and "limited" students, which would reduce the number of an average class to 412, with a graduation roll of a trifle under 26 per cent. Thus it will be seen that of our pupils who have matriculated, twice as many graduate as compared with the matriculates of the common schools.

I have confined the above statistics to the school system of the State of which the University is the head. I have not taken into account other educational institutions and private schools, nor have I regarded the 20,000 pupils who attend them. I am quite prepared to admit that the figures given above would be modified to a considerable extent if the whole field could be embraced, but not enough to traverse the assertion made originally, viz., that this Institution matriculates a larger percentage at the University and other colleges than come from the common schools; and that of this number who enter, a larger percentage graduate. I have thought it right and proper to make this comparison in the interest of higher education for the deaf and the blind, and in the hope that it may help place this school in its proper relation with the educational system of the State. It is very difficult to bring the public mind to understand the status of this Institution and its work. The "asylum" idea is so firmly fixed in the thought of the average citizen as to lead me almost to despair of making our people see that these children are not sick, or criminal, or insane, or feeble-minded, but just the average boy and girl with a heavy physical handicap which the pupil overcomes by pluck and perseverance, and the teacher by patience and experience.

Church Work.—The new St. Ann's Church in New York city, built for the exclusive use of the deaf from part of the proceeds of the sale of the old St. Ann's Church, which was for the benefit of both deaf and hearing people, was consecrated on Monday, December 26, 1898, by Bishop Potter. The Rev. Dr. Thomas Gallaudet, Vicar, the Rev. Dr. John Chamberlain, Curate, and other clergymen laboring among the deaf took part in the ceremonies. The church is a beautiful building, admirably adapted to the purpose for which it was erected. It is situated on 148th street, near Amsterdam avenue. The first services in it were held on Sunday, December 4, 1898. As the *Outlook* of January 7 truly says, "Other men in New York have wider fame and others are in receipt of larger salaries, but it is doubtful if any minister in any denomination has ever been permitted to do a more Christlike work than the venera-

ble rector of St. Ann's, who has so long and so devotedly served those who are so largely secluded from communication with the outside world."

All Souls' Church for the Deaf in Philadelphia celebrated the tenth anniversary of its existence in a building of its own on December 8, 1898. The sermon was preached by the Rev. J. M. Koehler, Rector, and the Rt. Rev. Bishop Whitaker and several clergymen among the deaf took part in the exercises. A just tribute was paid in the sermon to the devoted labors of the late Rev. Henry W. Syle in behalf of this church.

Christian Unity.—The following resolution, prepared by the Rev. Austin W. Mann, and adopted by the Tenth Conference of Church Workers among Deaf-Mutes, held at Columbus, Ohio, July 27 and 28, 1898, were presented to the Triennial Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church, held at Washington in October last, and have been widely quoted in the religious and secular press:

Whereas our Saviour has plainly expressed His wish that "all" Christians be "one," instead of many disunited, inharmonious bodies; and the Apostle Paul exhorts strongly against "division," and being "carried about by every wind of doctrine," instead of "standing fast in one spirit, with one mind, striving together for the faith of the Gospel," and the Psalmist says: "Behold how good and pleasant it is for brethren to dwell together in unity;" and

Whereas figures clearly show that deaf-mutes are too few for denominational divisions; in other words, they are not able, socially and financially, to bear "division;" and

Whereas their peculiar situation in respect to a spiritual care is not rightly understood generally; and

Whereas experience shows that one church can very well attend to their spiritual needs, at much less expense, and at the same time save them from the confused teachings of a divided Christianity: therefore,

Resolved, That the time has come for public expression on this most important subject, with the object of directing attention to the fact, attested by experience and observation, that a state of unity is better for our deaf-mute brethren than its opposite.

We believe that this will be fully realized at no distant day by Christians of every name. Better by all means that the realization come before the many lines of division have been drawn among them and a return to unity thus made difficult, if not impossible. Prevention is better than cure.

In this resolution there is no mention of any particular church as the one in which it is proposed that all the deaf should be united, but as the Conference of Church Workers that adopted the resolution was composed of clergymen of the Protestant Episcopal Church, it is reasonable to suppose that it is desired to gather all the deaf into that fold.

If the suggestion of the resolution should be adopted, there are two considerations that seem to give the Episcopal Church the highest claim to be recognized as the church for the deaf in America. First, it has already done much more in the way of religious work among the adult deaf than any other denomination, and, secondly, the Book of Prayer enables deaf worshippers, when exercises in the language of signs are not practicable, to follow all of the service except the sermon with a hearing congregation. Notwithstanding these advantages, the desire of the Conference that the Episcopal Church may be adopted as the only church for the deaf is not likely to be realized unless it is willing to do its work for and among them on a broad, liberal, and unsectarian basis, presenting as essential only those things which are so regarded by all Christian people.

Helen Keller.—Miss Helen Adams Keller is now continuing her preparation for Radcliffe College under the guidance of Mr. Merton S. Keith, of Cambridge, Massachusetts. In a recent letter Mr. Keith said that she was progressing finely, having nearly finished Algebra, done four out of the five books in Geometry, two orations of Cicero, one book of the Iliad, and considerable Vergil and Greek composition. The following extracts from a private letter written by Helen on the twenty-third of October last will be read with interest :

12 NEWBURY STREET, BOSTON, MASS.

This is the first opportunity I have had to write to you since we came here last Monday. We have been in such a whirl ever since we decided to come to Boston ; it seemed as if we should never get settled. However, teacher says we are "settled" and I believe we are ; for our room begins to have a familiar homelike air about it, although nobody in the house has spoken to us yet, except the boarding mistress. It seems rather odd to me to live like this, but I rather enjoy the novelty.

Mr. Keith comes here at half past three every day except Saturday. He says he prefers to come here for the present. I am reading the "Iliad," and the "Æneid," and Cicero, besides doing a lot in Geometry and Algebra. The Iliad is beautiful with its myth and grace and simplicity of a wonderfully childlike people, while the "Æneid" is more stately and reserved. It is like a beautiful maiden who always lived in a palace surrounded by a magnificent court, while the Iliad is like a splendid youth who has had the earth for his playground.

The weather has been awfully dismal all the week, but to-day is beautiful, and our room floor is flooded with sunlight. By and by we shall take a little walk in the Public Gardens. I wish the Wrentham woods were around the corner, but alas! they are not, and I shall have to content myself with a stroll in the gardens. Somehow, after the great fields and pastures and lofty pine groves of the country, they seem shut in and conventional. Even the trees seem citified and self-conscious. Indeed, I doubt if they are on speaking terms with their country cousins! Do you know, I cannot help feeling sorry for these trees with all their fashionable airs? They are like the people whom they see every day, who prefer the crowded noisy city to the quiet and freedom of the country. They do not even suspect how circumscribed their lives are. They look down pityingly on the country folk, who have never had an opportunity "to see the great world." Oh my! if they only realized their limitations, they would flee for their lives to the woods and fields. But what nonsense is this! You will think I am pining away for my beloved Wrentham, which is true in one sense and not in another. I do miss Red Farm and the dear ones there dreadfully; but I am not unhappy: I have teacher and my books and I have the certainty that something sweet and good will come to me in this great city, where human beings struggle so bravely all their lives to bring happiness from cruel circumstances. Anyway, I am glad to have my share in life, whether it be bright or sad.

Affectionately, your friend,

HELEN KELLER.

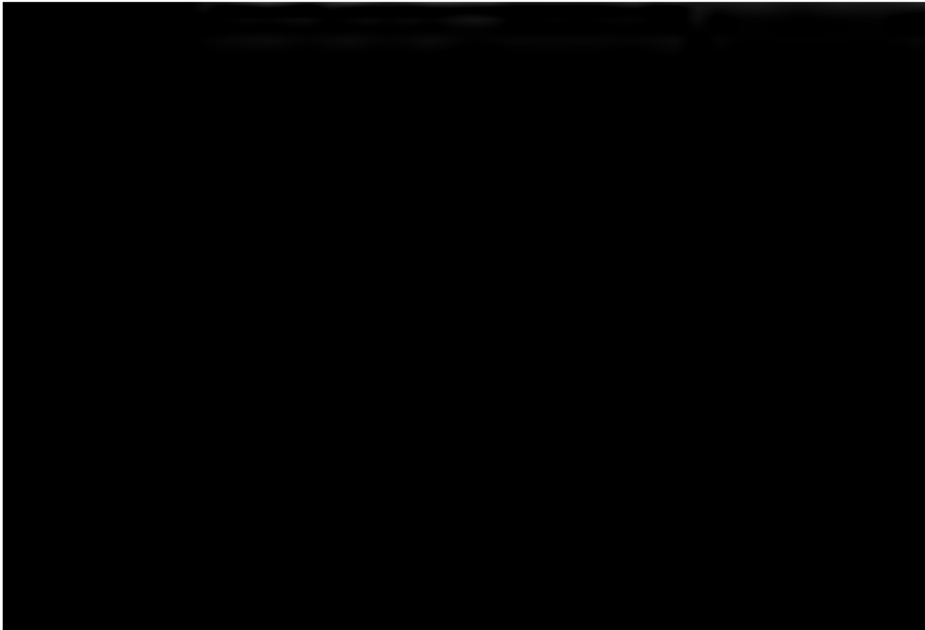
Benjamin Talbot.—In the death of the Rev. Benjamin Talbot the profession is again called upon to mourn the loss of one of its most honored members. Mr. Talbot died at his home in Columbus, Ohio, Monday, January 16, 1899, of the grip, aged seventy-two. His wife, who was ill with pneumonia, died two days later. In a letter to the editor of the *Annals*, written the week previous, after speaking of his grief at the death of Dr. Peet, to whom among the graduates of Yale College engaged in the work of deaf-mute instruction he stood next in order, Mr. Talbot said, apparently with a premonition of his approach-

ing end, "I may be the next to go, as I am just coming down with the grip. 'It is the Lord, let him do what seemeth him good.'" We hope to have a sketch of Mr. Talbot's life and character in the next number of the *Annals*.

Periodicals.—The *Quarterly Review of Deaf-Mute Education*, which has been published since 1886 by a committee of English instructors, has been discontinued, owing to the want of sufficient financial support. The *Quarterly Review* was always dignified, courteous, and able, and we regret that it has been compelled to cease publication. Fortunately, however, our British brethren still have an excellent professional periodical in the *Messenger*, formerly called the *Silent Messenger*. The *Messenger* possesses all the good qualities of the *Quarterly Review*, and in addition a sprightliness and energy which make its pages interesting, and we trust will insure it financial

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A new quarterly magazine by and for the deaf, which borrows from John Bulwer's venerable book the title of *Philocophus: or the Deaf-Mutes' Friend*, was begun in January, 1899, at Los Angeles, California. The Editor is Mr. Thomas Widd, formerly Principal of the Mackay Institution at Montreal, and the Publisher, Mr. Norman V. Lewis. The address is 2225 Vermont avenue, Los Angeles, Cal.; the price is fifty cents a year or fifteen cents a copy. The Editor, who knows well the fate that has overtaken many such periodicals in the





Yours, truly,
Benj. Talbot

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

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APRIL, 1899.

BENJAMIN TALBOT.

It was a remarkable coincidence that following close on the death of Dr. Isaac Lewis Peet came that of the subject of this sketch. There was a striking facial likeness between the two; they graduated from the same college and entered upon the work of teaching the deaf within a short time of each other.

The Sunday following Dr. Peet's death, Mr. Talbot and the writer met in the hall of the school after Sunday-school was over. After the exchanging of the greetings of the day, the subject of his old friend's death was broached to Mr. Talbot. A strange light came into his face and he quietly asked if it was so. When told that the *Deaf-Mutes' Journal* had an account of it, his hands went up to express surprise and sorrow. His mind then went back into the past, and he spoke of a visit he made the Doctor at the New York Institution in 1857. With a smile he recalled how he had often been taken for his friend. Then he walked away slowly, with head bent as if in thought. Was he thinking that his own call to the higher life might come next? Three days later found him suffering from a severe cold; but he remained at his post of duty in the class-room until the end of the school week, when he was ordered by his physician to keep his room. It was an attack of the grip. He had for some

years suffered with angina pectoris, which began to affect his heart. Its pulsation became weaker and weaker. The grip was more than his enfeebled constitution could stand. Slowly he approached the purple dawn which we call death; and when at last it came, on the evening of January 16, the passage was calm; so calm that when his younger son approached his bed to give him his medicine, he was shocked to find that the spirit of his father had taken its flight. The body was yet warm.

When the sad news reached the Institution it was a shock to every one, as the illness, during the week previous, seemed at no time dangerous. Superintendent Jones called upon the afflicted family to ask their wishes in regard to the funeral. The children wished to have it as simple and private as possible, owing to the critical illness of the mother, who had been ailing for several days with the grip, which developed into pneumonia; but, before the arrangements for the funeral could be made, the mother passed away without knowing that her husband had preceded her to the world beyond.

A double funeral was held at the family residence January 19. It was strictly private, being attended only by the members of the family. Dr. Washington Gladden, the pastor of both of the deceased, conducted the service, and the remains were taken to Green Lawn Cemetery, Columbus, O. It seemed beautiful in its sadness that the husband and wife should be united in death after treading life's pathway hand in hand for forty years.

Mr. Talbot was born in Brooklyn, New York, May 22, 1827. His father was Benjamin Talbot, a merchant, and his mother, Nancy Watrous, whose grandfather, John R. Watrous, was a surgeon in the Revolutionary Army. He had three sisters, two of whom died before he was born and the other before he was a year old. His father was in the dry-goods business in Brooklyn, but went into business in New Orleans, leaving his family in the north when

Benjamin was six years old. After a year's absence, while he was on his way home for a visit, coming up the Mississippi and Ohio by boat, he was taken ill with yellow fever and died at Marietta, Ohio, where his grave was marked "The Stranger's Grave." The first time that the son saw his father's grave was when he was returning home from the Teachers' Convention held in Staunton, Virginia, in 1856.

After his father's death, he, with his mother, made his home with his mother's sister's family on a farm at Colchester, Connecticut. At an early age he showed a studious turn of mind, becoming unusually apt in mathematics and beginning the study of Latin at the age of nine. He attended school at Bacon Academy, Colchester, working on the farm in summer. For two years he helped his uncle, in his leisure hours, in the care of silk-worms. At the age of thirteen he was ready for Yale; but, on account of his extreme youth, and probably owing to a want of funds, he did not enter until 1846. The interval he spent in working on the farm, and in tutoring and doing extra work at the Academy. In 1844 he taught a district school in southern Connecticut at a salary of ten dollars a month and board—boarding at the homes of the scholars.

He entered Yale near the end of the Freshman year, May, 1846. By his diligence and faithfulness he won and kept a high rank in his class. Graduation in August, 1849, found him ranking fifth in a class of ninety-four. Among his classmates were John Catlin Bull, for many years a teacher in the American School at Hartford; Timothy Dwight, President of Yale University; Franklin Woodbury Fisk, President of Chicago Theological Seminary; Francis Miles Finch, a distinguished jurist and professor of the History and Evolution of the Law in Cornell University; William Frederick Poole, of library fame; Elijah Foote Hall, Recording Secretary of the

American Geographical Society ; Edward Parmelee Smith, who was Commissioner of Indian Affairs at Washington, D. C., in 1873, and afterwards President of Howard University ; and Edward Dafydd Morris, for many years professor and chairman of the faculty in Lane Theological Seminary. Among his distinguished professors were Theodore D. Woolsey, Chauncey A. Goodrich, Denison Olmstead, James Hadley, Benjamin Silliman, Noah Porter, and A. D. Stanley.

After graduation he resided for one year at the college as a graduate student and then entered Yale Divinity School. Here he studied theology for three years, until 1853, when he was licensed to preach. In Iowa City, in 1864, he was ordained as a minister of the Gospel, but never had the charge of a congregation.

From November, 1853, to August, 1854, he occupied the position of classical teacher in Williston Seminary, a preparatory school for college at Easthampton, Mass.

Very likely through the recommendation of his old college room-mate and chum, Mr. Bull, then teaching in the American School, he received a call from Superintendent Collins Stone to become a teacher in the Ohio Institution in the fall of 1854. Mr. John M. Francis, a graduate of Brown University, afterward Principal of the California Institution, and Mr. George L. Weed, a graduate of Marietta College, subsequently Superintendent of the Ohio Institution and the Wisconsin Institution, began their work as teachers at the same time. The other teachers were Roswell H. Kinney, William E. Tyler, Danforth E. Ball, Fisher A. Spofford, and Plumb M. Park. They have all passed away except Mr. Tyler, who is living in Massachusetts, Mr. Weed in Philadelphia, and Mr. Park in California. Mr. Talbot remained in the service of the Institution for nine years, working his way up to the highest class.

On July 5, 1859, he was united in marriage to Miss

Harriet Bliss, of West Jefferson, Ohio, by his friend and superintendent, Rev. Collins Stone. The bride was a half sister of Mrs. Mary B. Swan, then assistant matron of the Ohio Institution and afterwards matron of the Iowa Institution for many years. Six children were born of this union, four of whom are living—two sons and two daughters, who are highly esteemed for their scholarship and character.

In September, 1863, he became superintendent of the Iowa Institution, succeeding Rev. William E. Ijams. The change did not prove to be a bed of roses for Mr. Talbot. The Institution, then in Iowa City, occupied a number of leased public buildings which were ill-suited for the purposes of a school. Owing to the Civil War, which was then in progress, insufficient appropriations were made for the school. Until 1866 Mr. Talbot, in addition to his duties as superintendent, had to assist in the teaching. In 1866 an act was passed by the General Assembly providing for a permanent site. The location was to be decided upon by a Commission of three, who were also empowered to select plans and receive bids for the construction of buildings. Three prominent citizens of Council Bluffs were appointed to serve on the Commission, at the head of which was Thomas Officer, who had been a teacher in the Ohio Institution from 1840 to 1845 and Superintendent of the Illinois Institution from 1845 to 1855. The Commission decided upon a tract of eighty acres outside of the city limits of Council Bluffs. The plans and bids for the construction of buildings were submitted to the Legislature in 1868, with the recommendation that an appropriation of \$300,000 be made for the immediate construction of buildings. The Commission was allowed only \$125,000 to complete the centre and one wing of the proposed edifice. The bid was let for \$121,500, a price "far too low to secure a good building of the style and size completed." "The plans, too, were found very defective, so

that the structure finally completed and delivered by the contractor bore very little resemblance to the one designed by the original architects.”*

Mr. Talbot moved to Council Bluffs in September, 1870, although the building was not ready for occupancy as it should have been by the terms of the contract. School could not be opened until Thanksgiving day; and, as if by the irony of fate, “they found it almost impossible to live comfortably in the great barn-like structure provided for them. The heating apparatus proved inadequate, and stoves had to be set up in most of the rooms; the gas works froze up, leaving kerosene lamps as the only dependence for artificial light; the walls settled and cracked until a serious alarm was felt lest a collapse be experienced. In short, the building was found to be poorly designed, worse built, and very incompletely and inefficiently equipped and furnished. Before the end of the first year it was found that the water supply must be enlarged. The original intention had been to rely upon cisterns. A wind-mill on the bank of a creek a half mile away mitigated somewhat the conditions found so unfavorable, but a few calm days frequently reduced the supply of aqueous fluid to nothing. To obviate this difficulty a large reservoir, supplied by a steam-pump, was built upon a high elevation in the rear of the Institution.”† It was not until 1876 that the Legislature decided to build the remaining wing, but work had hardly begun upon this before a fire broke out, on February 25, 1877, and destroyed in two hours the part already built. Half of the classes were sent home, and the rest kept in the shop buildings and a frame building erected temporarily. In August of the same year the new wing, which was just ready for flooring, was unroofed

* G. L. Wyckoff's “History of the Iowa School for the Deaf,” in “Histories of American Schools for the Deaf,” published by the Volta Bureau in 1893, p. 23.

† *Ibid.*, p. 23.

by a tornado. School, however, was resumed in the fall. "With the gathering together of the General Assembly, which met in the winter following the fire, there came great legislative hostility to everything connected with the Institution. Part of this was, unquestionably, the result of the general financial depression just then passing over the country, but more arose from the personal unpopularity of Mr. Talbot among those who controlled the political affairs of the State. Inside of the Institution, among those who knew him well and were most familiar with the man and his methods, he was highly esteemed. None questioned his integrity, and his ability as an instructor was indisputable, but he was not a man calculated to win great general popularity, and, in fact, it must be said that he had become decidedly unpopular in certain circles among those whose influence was all-powerful in controlling legislation. The result was unfortunate for the school in more than one way, for it led to a violent reduction in the support funds, an entire change in the personnel of the Board of Trustees, and through that to a change in the superintendency and the resignation of many of the most valuable teachers."*

In reviewing his administration, it is not necessary to point out his mistakes and shortcomings, or to recall the misrepresentation, injustice, and insult of which he was made the victim. Like all men, he made mistakes; doubtless, a puritanic strain in his nature, a manner too cold, and a temper too raspy, led him into errors; like many superintendents of Institutions, especially those west of the Alleghanies, he was unappreciated, harassed, baffled, and persecuted. Is it not sufficient proof of his integrity that it was never successfully assailed; of his industry and skill that the school grew from 60 in 1863 to over 150 in 1877; of his good judgment and common sense that he pleaded, though in vain, for a central location for

* *Ibid.*, p. 25.

the Institution ; of his watchfulness for the welfare of the children under his care that not a death occurred in the Institution in thirteen years, and that on that dreadful midnight conflagration, on February 25, he, awakened by dogs barking outside, managed to rouse and get all the children out of the building in safety ; and of his progressiveness that he introduced industrial education and the teaching of articulation ?

That the Board of Trustees subsequently saw their mistake is borne out by the fact that in 1882 they entered into a correspondence with him with the view of inducing him to return to their Institution, but to no purpose.

After leaving the Iowa Institution, he was for one year principal of the High School in Council Bluffs. In the fall of 1880 he returned to the Ohio Institution as head teacher. In the fall of 1882, upon the retirement of Superintendent Charles S. Perry, he was made Acting Superintendent, being relieved the following summer, when Mr. Amasa Pratt was appointed to succeed Mr. Perry. He resumed teaching and labored on from year to year until his death.


The following pupils of the Ohio School, who became teachers, were under his instruction for a year or more : Matthew G. Raffington, in the Ohio Institution from 1861 to 1884 ; Conrad S. Zorbaugh, in the Ohio Institution from 1864 to 1865, and ever since in the Iowa Institution ; Parley P. Pratt, foreman of the shoe shop in the Ohio Institution from 1864 to 1887, in the Arkansas Institution from 1889 to 1890, in the Ohio Institution from 1890 to 1894, and ever since in the Michigan Institution ; Miss Lou J. Hawkins, in the Iowa Institution from 1866 to 1869, afterward the wife of Mr. Henry A. Turton, who was superintendent of the Kansas Institution from 1883 to 1885 ; Miss Carrie A. Butler, in the Ohio Institution from 1866 to 1869 ; Miss Mary C. Bierce, in the Ohio Institution from 1868 to 1887 ; Robert P. McGregor, in the

Maryland Institution from 1872 to 1875, principal of the Cincinnati Day-School from 1875 to 1881, principal of the Colorado School from 1881 to 1882, teacher in the Ohio School from 1882 to 1889, principal of the St. Louis Day-School from 1889 to 1890, and ever since in the Ohio School; Henry J. Bardes, foreman of the shoe shop in the Western Pennsylvania Institution since 1887; Miss Mary E. Grow, in the Ohio Institution from 1889 to 1893; Clarence W. Charles, in the Ohio Institution from 1889 to 1891, and since 1893 foreman of the printing office; William F. Murphy, foreman of the shoe shop in the Arkansas Institution since 1890; William H. Zorn, in the Ohio Institution since 1890; Miss Georgiana F. Miller, teacher and principal of the Toledo Day-School from 1891 to 1894; Miss Clara Runck, librarian and teacher in New York Institution for Improved Instruction since 1898; and Ernest Zell, art teacher in the Ohio Institution since 1896.

As a teacher Mr. Talbot was punctual, conscientious, and industrious. That it was his desire to keep in touch with the work of the profession is evidenced by his frequent attendance at the Conventions of the Instructors of the Deaf. He was at the Fourth, held at Staunton, Va., in 1856; the Fifth, at Jacksonville, Ill., in 1858; the Sixth (First Conference of Principals), at Washington, in 1868; the Seventh, at Indianapolis, Ind., in 1870; the Eighth, at Belleville, Ontario, in 1874; the Ninth, at Columbus, O., in 1878; the Fourteenth, at Flint, Mich., in 1895, and the Fifteenth, at Columbus, in 1898. He was always ready when called upon to do his share in contributing to the success of the meetings. At the Fourth Convention, upon the nomination of Dr. Harvey P. Peet, he served as temporary secretary; and upon the recommendation of the Committee on Permanent Officers, he and Edward M. Gallaudet became permanent secretaries. At the Fifth he read a paper entitled "The Development of the Social Character of the Deaf and Dumb." His last paper was

read at the Thirteenth, held at Chicago, in 1893, the title being "Hindrances to a Perfect Family Life in an Institution." He took a deep interest in the *American Annals of the Deaf*, frequently contributing articles to its pages. His first article, entitled "The Responsibility of a Teacher," appeared in January, 1856; and his last one, entitled "Changes in our Profession," in June, 1895. That he loved the work of teaching and enjoyed it there is no doubt; but his work was hampered by three drawbacks—his power of imparting knowledge lacked force and facility; although he himself could use signs fairly well, he had difficulty in reading the signs and spelling of others; and he had a habit of running the last two or three letters of a word together, which rendered his finger-spelling often unintelligible. But he had, as he declared at the recent reunion of the Ohio Alumni Association, a great and strong affection for the deaf, with whom he had worked for so many years. He attended every reunion of the Ohio Alumni Association when he was in Columbus, and took pleasure in greeting the members, many of whom were of the three hundred pupils who had been in the classes under his instruction. He was glad to make an address whenever called upon. He was interested in the Ohio Home for Aged and Infirm Deaf from the beginning, and contributed freely to its funds and served faithfully as a member of its Board of Managers. Not infrequently was he in demand as interpreter for the deaf at funerals and to solemnize marriages among the deaf. He did careful and conscientious work on the marriage records of the deaf of Ohio for the "Inquiry concerning the Results of Marriages of the Deaf in America" conducted by the editor of the *Annals*.

He was a born scholar; the atmosphere of classics and dictionaries was congenial to him. He was a fine Latin, Greek, and Hebrew student. In his schoolboy days, as he himself said not long ago, his companions often made



fun of him by saying that his growth—he was scarcely five feet high and weighed about a hundred pounds—was hindered by the piling upon his head of the large heavy books which he studied. During the last twenty years he did an immense amount of work on Dr. Murray's English Dictionary, the Standard Dictionary of Anglicised Words and Phrases, and the new Standard Dictionary. He was a great reader, and his general information was extensive and accurate. He was a clear thinker and possessed a lucid, accurate, and pleasing style of writing.

He was a man of singular purity of character. He was free from the small vices of the day. The frivolities of the world had no attraction for him. He ever kept within the bounds of propriety of behavior and had a contempt for things tortuous, equivocal, and ignoble. The house of God was, to him, a place of constant delight. He became a communicant of the Congregational Church July 3, 1842. His feet never wandered from its precincts. Nothing but absolute necessity could keep him from going to church; and whenever he saw any deaf members present he made it his duty to interpret the services to them. He did a great deal of church work, often supplying pulpits, acting on committees, attending conferences, and writing papers on church questions.

In his death the profession loses another of the few surviving teachers who were called to the work in accordance with the idea of the fathers that hearing men of liberal education and dignity of character were best equipped for carrying on that grand system of instruction which is founded on the theory that "Education, if it means anything, is the quickening of the powers that enable us to live—ideally, practically, morally and mentally—or that give us capacity to enjoy and expand this life." While he was clear-sighted enough to recognize the possibilities of oral teaching, and liberal enough to welcome it for such as can be benefited by it, he was surprised at the

fierce war waged upon the sign-language, and grieved at the efforts to supplant it in this country. He stood firm by the old faith and had the satisfaction of knowing that it is held in priceless value by the adult deaf themselves—the educated men and women who know and appreciate how much it has enriched their minds and lives.

ROBERT PATTERSON,
Principal of the Ohio Institution, Columbus, Ohio.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION OF THE DEAF.

PEOPLE frequently speak of deafness as a great affliction, a sad misfortune, a severe calamity, or associate with it some such grave expression. That this is true of the uneducated deaf all will admit, but when it refers to them *in toto* it places them in a false light.

The greatest blessing we can give the deaf is a good education. Give them that, and all the grave and serious features of their affliction, misfortune, calamity, whatever you please to call it, assume a brighter, more cheerful and hopeful aspect.

The children who begin their school lives at our schools for the deaf are, with but few exceptions, in the lowest stage of mental development, and, as might be expected under the circumstances, their faces betoken anything but intelligence, contentment, and happiness. Hearing children learn a great deal at home before they enter school, but these deaf children, shut out from all intercourse with the world, know not so much as the names of their parents, brothers, and sisters, nor of the myriads of interesting objects and living creatures around them. They are not even aware of the existence of a Creator, and make no distinction between right and wrong. Many of them, through parental neglect, have reached adult life, large

and strong of stature, but with no means of expression, except, perhaps, a few crude signs, and with the ideas of a mere child. This is where the affliction of the deaf may be said to take a grave and serious aspect, because here the most appalling feature of their case is their deep ignorance—their total lack of knowledge of the most common things.

But once within the walls of the school, under the training of experienced teachers, a great change is about to be wrought in these children. The utter darkness which has so long shrouded their minds is to make way for the new light, and those sad hearts weighed down by their affliction are to be made buoyant. They are trained first to grasp isolated words, then connected ideas. They are taught to read, write, reason, reckon, and to talk and read from the lips of others. The larger boys are taught trades, of which every school of importance for this class of children in this country has a variety to select from, and the girls are taught sewing, fancy-work, dressmaking, cooking, etc. Above all, they are taught manners and morals, the truths of the gospel, and the way of salvation. Thus, gradually, their minds unfold.

When these children see that they can learn like other children, especially when they are able to begin a correspondence with their loved parents and friends, their joy and interest know no bounds. Having thoughts, and a language to express those thoughts, they are now members of society, and can appreciate the delights of fellowship. That dull and listless look, so characteristic of our new pupils, vanishes by degrees from their faces, and they become cheerful and happy like other children. They enjoy their school life, and are interested in games, especially the boys, who delight in outdoor sports, such as base-ball, foot-ball, polo, croquet, lawn-tennis, and the like. They frequently arrange match games with clubs of the hearing, and generally win a majority of the

victories. As time progresses they master history, arithmetic, geography, botany, philosophy, anatomy, and hygiene, and become proficient in English. Thus step by step they push their way up through the grades.

These children began their school lives in about as low a state mentally as the ugly-looking worm when it shuts itself up in its cocoon, but on their graduation they have reached a stage of intelligence, brightness, and happiness that may be compared to this same worm when it emerges from its dark cell a beautiful, brilliant butterfly, but with this difference: that, instead of fluttering about from flower to flower in a sort of vain, aimless fashion, they go forth into the world with a determination to earn their living; nevertheless, we must confess there are some butterflies among them. Many of them rise to positions of trust, distinction, and honor; the majority, however, engage in the common pursuits of life, and generally are so successful that their affliction becomes a matter of minor consideration. Many of them, seized with the desire to soar still higher, enter Gallaudet College, graduate with a degree and become teachers of the deaf, editors and publishers, clergymen, architects and artists, lawyers, botanists, postmasters, Government clerks, etc. A few have entered colleges for the hearing, and after taking a few years' course have graduated with honor. Several have been known to become so proficient in certain lines as to become teachers of the hearing. The educated deaf are useful members of society, and of profit to the community at large; they are not dependent, but ambitious and willing to support themselves and their families. They generally marry, have pleasant homes, and rear children who in intelligence and refinement are the equals of any in their neighborhood, often their superiors. On the whole the lot of the educated deaf, far from being sad and melancholy, is comparatively happy and prosperous. Indeed, there are many who are disposed to look upon their affliction rather as a blessing than otherwise.

Considering the many advantages and enjoyments the educated deaf have over the uneducated; considering, also, the fact that nearly every State and Territory in our country has one or more free schools for this class of children, and such States as have none make special provision for the education of their deaf residents in the schools of other States, it would be natural to suppose that parents having children thus afflicted would be only too glad to avail themselves of these advantages. Such, however, is not always the case. Here in New England there are scores, perhaps hundreds, of deaf children under school age who are not attending any school whatever, but are growing up into manhood and womanhood in ignorance. Nor is this state of affairs confined to New England alone, but every State and Territory in this broad land has a similar story to relate; hundreds—yes, hundreds, of poor, helpless deaf children, neglected, kept at home to grow up in ignorance!

Strange as it may seem, the parents of these children make every provision for the education of their hearing children. Yes, they even go so far as to compel their attendance, but their deaf children they seem to regard as a class of unteachable animals dropped from another world; for, having no thoughts and no means of communication, they reason that they are not members of this world. But never was a greater mistake made. These deaf children are as teachable, as eager and willing to learn, as other children, only greater patience and care are required on the part of the teacher. Besides, they need their education a hundred times more than hearing children.


Illiterate people in possession of all their faculties are far from being ignorant, for they can communicate their thoughts, hopes, hates, desires, and loves to others, and in such companionship glean some of the highest pleasures the world affords. In Maine the writer has frequently

met fishermen who could not read a single word nor even write their own names, yet, through hearsay, they were fairly well informed in the news of the day, and were intelligent in many things. From even this the ignorant deaf, left to their own resources, are shut out.

Parents who deliberately keep their deaf children from school may not be aware of committing any crime; nevertheless, the fact remains true that by so doing they are guilty of increasing their affliction. For it cannot be denied that the older an ignorant deaf child grows, the more keenly does he feel his affliction, especially when he mingles among the educated deaf and perceives how much more they enjoy life than he does. At the convention of the New England Gallaudet Association held at Portland, Maine, last summer, there were two or three adult deaf present who had never been to any school. They knew, it is true, a few crude signs, but they were unable to comprehend the business before the convention, or to share in the fun and jokes between the sessions; consequently they took their condition most seriously to heart. But perhaps no deaf person ever feels his affliction more keenly than do those pupils who come to our schools between the ages of twenty and thirty-five. Time and again the writer has seen such pupils break down completely and sob because of their inability to keep pace in their studies even with the younger children.

Parents often harbor the idea that the deafness of their child is only temporary, and that in due time it will be in possession of all its faculties like any normal child. Often such parents pay large sums of money to unskilled doctors in the hope of having the hearing of their child restored, only to be sorely disappointed in the end. Thus the best school days of such children are lost.

Almost every deaf child is sensitive to sound, and parents are invariably hopeful and anxious to have their child hear, but are rarely successful; perhaps not more



than one in a thousand is really so. Well do I remember the time when, some months after I lost my hearing, a fine-looking, well-dressed man, assuming to know a great deal about medicine in general, and the treatment of deafness in particular, came to our house and, after examining my ears, assured my parents that he could cure me of my deafness in short order. A bargain was struck and the man in question took off my coat, gave me a severe rubbing down, stood me on my head, and cut up all sorts of antics with me, until I was well nigh exhausted and began to protest. At this he stopped and hallooed in my ears, but he might as well have hallooed to a statue, for I heard not a sound of his voice. In addition to this I was treated by several other doctors, and with no better success. My wife's parents in like manner had great faith that the doctors could restore her hearing. She was taken to Boston to be treated by a specialist, but he did not improve her condition. Nearly every deaf person with whom I have consulted on this matter has a similar experience to relate. To be sure, parents are justified in having the case of their child examined by a skilful aurist, but its education should never be delayed on that account. It would be safer, whenever there is any doubt in the matter, to send the child at once to the State school for the deaf, and have the physician in charge attend to its case.

Delay in the education of a deaf child is a set-back to the mental progress of that child from which it can never fully recover. Every one knows what an easy matter it is to train a young tree to the required shape, but neglect that tree until it has grown large, and the task becomes ten-fold greater, often an impossibility. In like manner, deaf children between the ages of five and twelve have retentive minds, and are at their best to become successful scholars, but later on their minds are dull and sluggish, requiring greater effort to master their lessons. Beyond

twenty they seldom, if ever, make anything more than a fair showing, especially in language. The minds of these older pupils are like a machine, the delicate parts of which have become rusty from long disuse. Though the expert mechanic may work on it for weeks, even for months, he can never make it run harmoniously, unless, perhaps, he puts in some new parts; but we cannot even think of treating the minds of these pupils in that fashion. Such pupils take their affliction most seriously to heart when they become conscious of their condition, as the following examples will show.

While on duty during the evening study-hour in the Hartford School, I have seen some heartrending incidents. It often happens that pupils between the ages of twenty and thirty-five study in the same class with the younger children. One evening I saw one of these older pupils, whose age was about twenty-five, raise his eyes from his book and cast them upon one of his younger class-mates, who had already mastered his lesson. Then turning to me, with great tears in his eyes, he said in signs: "I am too old. I cannot learn my lessons. My parents are to blame. They should have sent me to school years ago." At another time I saw one of these older pupils wearing an unusually sad expression, and upon questioning him he said: "I am old enough to be in business. If my parents had sent me to school when I was young, I should be earning my livelihood now. The best years of my life are lost."

It is not easy to conjecture what would have been the feelings and thoughts of the parents of these young men had they seen with their own eyes their lamentations, and heard the blame that was heaped upon themselves for bringing about this state of affairs. It is certain, however, that if other deaf children should be born to them, they would not put off their education so long.

A few parents, chiefly of the aristocratic and well-to-do

class, are under the impression that our schools for the deaf are akin to reform schools, asylums, retreats, establishments for incorrigibles, or charitable institutions, and they have a peculiar aversion to sending their children to them. Here, again, they are off the track, for our schools are purely educational in their character, and are maintained from taxes of the State, on the same principle as public schools.

Sometimes the parents of a deaf child, perhaps through sympathy for its affliction, become so strongly attached to it that they cannot bear to have it away from home at school, fearing that it would get homesick, or that something unforeseen would happen to it, when in reality the child would be far happier and enjoying life more among the other children of the school than at home. There is one case on record of a fond mother taking her child from school because she could not sleep at night with it away from home.

It is natural and right that parents should love their children, but when that love goes so far as this it amounts to a cruel sin ; for in their blind affection they are robbing the child of its future prosperity and happiness. Parents of the above class would do well to read and ponder over the following extract, which not long ago appeared in the papers :

In one of the Southern States the parents of a deaf boy neglected to send him to school, because he was their only child, and they had a certain aversion to having him away from home. He grew into manhood with his mind no better improved than when a boy. He could neither read nor write, and his knowledge of the most common things was very meagre. As he grew older the parental love that was so great in his boyhood days began to diminish. He was set to work on the farm. At first this was a sort of recreation to him, but in process of time he perceived that he was not enjoying the freedom of other people. The

work he was doing brought him no return. He felt that he was little better than a slave. So one day, in his rage for all the woes brought upon him, he attacked his father with a hoe. For this rash deed he was tried, condemned, and sent to prison. Now, had this man been sent to school when of proper age, this would not have occurred. Instead of being a disgrace to his parents and relatives, he would have been a blessing to them, as thousands of the educated deaf have proved to be. Many such crimes and misdeeds, committed by the uneducated deaf, can be recalled, the blame for which rests not so much upon themselves as upon their parents, who deliberately withheld from them in their youth that education which they so much needed.

There is still another class of parents, who seem to think that money is above all other considerations, even above the education of their deaf child. When the school authorities respectfully acquaint them with the necessity of having their child at school, the reply invariably comes that they cannot afford it; that they have work for their son or daughter to do at home, therefore he or she cannot be spared. Frequently such parents take their child from school before its education is half finished, under the plea that they need it at home to help do the work. My own dear father, I am sorry to report, belonged to this class. Though I was bereft of the sense of hearing at the age of ten, I was not sent to a school for the deaf until I was eighteen. The reason for this delay was that my father was of the opinion that I would be of more use in the woods and in the mill with him than at school. But my mother took a different view of the matter, and it was mainly through her influence that I was sent to Hartford.

Somewhere I once read of a certain teacher who, whenever he met his pupils, addressed them with the greatest reverence and respect, because in looking into their youthful faces he fancied he could see future lawyers,

teachers and professors, ministers, editors, authors, poets, artists, sculptors, presidents, and other distinguished personages. It is unfortunate that parents do not always discern the possibility of future attainments their deaf children possess. My father later regretted most bitterly that he had done anything to hinder my progress, and was only too glad to acknowledge the wisdom of my mother's course.

Every youth, the deaf not excepted, is possessed of one or more valuable latent powers, and the one thing needful to develop them is a good schooling. The most valuable diamonds are often mistaken for common pebbles, until their sparkling beauty has been brought out by the polisher. It would be well for parents who insist on keeping their deaf children from school carefully to consider this point.

From the foregoing pages it will be seen that all the reasons advanced by parents for keeping their deaf children from school are inexcusable. In most cases they are thoughtless and ignorant, and do not seem to be aware of the serious consequences that are sure to follow from allowing their children to grow up in ignorance. By the iron hand of the law they should be brought to a realization of the great wrong they are doing, not only to their deaf children, but also to society and the State. The writer is, therefore, of the opinion that every State in our country should have a law in force making compulsory the education of its deaf residents who are of school age.

It should be a last resort, however. Principals of schools for the deaf should keep track of every deaf child in the State. Having found the child, they should write, or send an agent to its parents or guardians, using kindness and persuasion to convince them of the necessity of having the child sent to school. If all this amounts to naught, then a copy of the law should be sent, politely but firmly informing them that, unless the child appeared within a rea-

sonable length of time, an officer of the law would be on hand to take it by main force, if necessary. Such a course, we think, would reduce to a minimum the number of the stay-at-homes.

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AN ORAL ENVIRONMENT.

AN oral environment is the *sine qua non* of successful speech-teaching. The possibility of a deaf child being successfully taught speech is in proportion to the percentage of the oral element in his environment.

A student desirous of learning to speak German journeys to the country where that language is the vernacular. There his instructor talks to him in German; the conversation at the table, in the shop, and on the street is German; the very air he breathes is German; everything is German. Everywhere it is to his advantage to speak German and to his disadvantage to be unable to speak it. He learns to understand German by constantly hearing it, and acquires a fluency of speech by constantly using it. He enters fully into the spirit of the German tongue, he thinks in German, and ever afterwards he readily understands and naturally and spontaneously uses that language.

Perhaps the student, unable to go abroad, takes his German course in a summer school of languages. Here his instructor, by his familiarity with the language and his enthusiasm in his work, is able to make the atmosphere of the class-room German. The student is addressed in German and must answer in German; German only is spoken. The student absorbs a good deal of the German spirit and, in the class-room, he understands and speaks German well.

But this German environment is confined to the class-room. As the student goes about his daily duties and mingles with his fellows his environment is English. If, perchance, he is accosted in German he is taken entirely by surprise and must take a moment to recover himself, and, even then, it is not surprising if he answers in English; his larger environment is English. His mode of thought is English and he enters only partially into the German spirit. He talks German freely with his instructor and, perhaps, with a few of his associates, but he never habitually and spontaneously uses German wherever opportunity offers.

Perhaps our student is a high-school pupil. His teacher is much more familiar with the English than with the German tongue. All questions, explanations, and conversations of the class-room are in English. His environment, both in and out of school, is almost wholly English. He catches almost nothing of the German spirit and makes no use of the few German phrases he knows, because English answers every purpose. Is it surprising, then, that the student, when addressed in German, replies in English that he does not speak German? He does not expect to speak German, and he never does.

We have now viewed our student learning to speak German under various circumstances, and we have noted that his natural and spontaneous use of the spoken language was in proportion to the percentage of the German element in his environment. Are not the deaf children in our schools, learning to speak, under circumstances similar to those under which the student was learning to speak German? Are not the cases comparable, and are not the results similar? Let us see.

Our high-school pupil learning German is now a deaf child in a so-called Oral class of a Combined-System school. His teacher, who has taught a manual class for many years, is much more familiar with the manual method of teaching

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than with the oral method. When a new word is given, the sign accompanies it by way of explanation. The teacher, almost involuntarily, talks and makes signs at the same time ; the pupil, taking little note of his speech, but observing all his signs, divines his meaning from them. If the teacher does not readily convey an idea to the pupil through speech, he makes the meaning clear with signs, and *vice versa*. Out of the school-room signs are the medium of communication everywhere. His environment is almost wholly sign, and he catches almost nothing of the oral spirit. He makes no use of the words and phrases he has learned, because signs answer every purpose. It is not surprising, then, that the child when addressed orally replies, by signs, that he cannot talk.

Our student learning to speak German in a summer school of languages is now a deaf child in a class of an Oral Department of a Combined-System school. His teacher, by his entire familiarity with the oral method of teaching, is able to make the atmosphere of the school-room oral. The pupil is addressed through speech and he must answer by means of the spoken word. His teacher questions, explains, and tells stories orally. Speech is the only means of communication. The child learns the elements and the names of objects, speaks sentences, and catches a good deal of the oral spirit. In the school-room he understands and uses speech well. Speech is expected of him there and he responds to the stimulus.

But this oral environment is confined to the school-room. All the rest of the time—as he goes on the playground, into the chapel, the dining-room, the dormitory, and the shops, or enters into communication with the officers and supervisors of the institution—signs are used. If he is addressed by speech in any of these places, he is so taken by surprise that it is with difficulty he is able to reply orally. It is not surprising if he replies in signs, as he is more familiar with them, and is sure they will be

understood. Can you blame him? His larger environment is that of signs. The child always communicates orally with his teacher, and, perhaps, with a few who know and love him best, but he never naturally and spontaneously uses speech wherever opportunity offers.

Our student learning to speak German abroad is now a deaf child in an exclusively Oral school or the Oral Department of a Combined-System school where the two classes of pupils are kept entirely separate. Here his teacher addresses him orally; the conversation at the table where his teacher sits with him is oral; and in the dormitory, the chapel, the shop, the office—everywhere, speech is used. He lives and moves in an atmosphere of speech. Everywhere, he expects to speak and to be spoken to. He feels more and more that it is to his advantage to understand and use speech, and to his disadvantage not to understand and use it. He learns to understand speech by constantly seeing it, and comes to use speech freely and naturally by constantly using it. His mode of thought is that of spoken English, and it is not surprising that the child becomes, almost unconsciously, a speaking person. He has entered fully into the oral spirit of his environment, and ever afterwards speech is to him the natural means of communication.

We have now seen the deaf child learning to speak under varying circumstances similar to those under which the student was learning to speak German. The extent to which the student naturally and spontaneously uses German is in proportion to the percentage of the German element in his environment, and the extent to which the deaf child naturally and spontaneously uses speech is in proportion to the percentage of the oral element in his environment.

But the value of spoken German to the student and the value of speech to the deaf child are by no means equal. The German student has acquired a delightful accomplishment, but the deaf child has acquired the language of

those among whom he must live and work, and is able to communicate with his associates as others communicate with them—an essential to his social happiness and his business success.

How necessary it is, then, that all who are interested in giving speech to the deaf child should use every possible means to make his environment oral; for an oral environment is the *sine qua non* of successful speech-teaching.

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THE QUESTION OF CHAPEL SERVICES IN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

MAN is, by nature, essentially a gregarious animal, and on his religious side this natural tendency is shown in all its intensity. The remains of ancient places of worship, such as those at Luxor and Stonehenge, and the rock-hewn temples of India; the grand structures erected in honor of Greek and Roman deities; the pagodas of China; the mosques of Mohammedanism; the stately cathedrals of Europe, as well as the more modern churches of America—all are evidences that man, both pagan and Christian, seeks the companionship of his kind when he gives expression to his religious sentiments.

Community of worship is peculiar to no religion or race of people, but is the chief characteristic of all. Any religion which prescribed as one of its tenets solitary worship, or even family worship alone, and which forbade general assemblages, would never gain much sway over men's souls.

So strong is this desire for community worship that men have faced all kinds of privation—exile, torture, and death—in order to secure it. For this the early Christians held their meetings in the catacombs of Rome, in defiance

of death in the arena, at the stake, and on the cross. For this the Albigenses risked annihilation among the hills of southern France. For this the Covenanters of Scotland held their conventicles in the wilds, in defiance of Claverhouse and his merciless dragoons. And it was to obtain this same community of worship that the Pilgrims sought the New England coast; the Quakers, Pennsylvania; the Catholics, Maryland; and the Huguenots, South Carolina.

When we come to consider the question of the utility and advisability of chapel services in our schools for the deaf, it should be with a due appreciation of the naturalness and strength of this feeling which induces men to meet together for religious observances.

As a rule, colleges, academies, and boarding-schools in Christian communities have morning prayers for the whole body of students, and schools for the deaf have the sanction of custom for a similar observance on their part.

In deciding this question *pro* or *con*, the only point that should receive consideration is the welfare of the pupils. If the morning services are a loss, intellectually and morally, to the children, the sooner they are done away with, the better. If, however, they are a gain, then they should be retained, by all means. But how can the question of gain or loss be determined? Are those who are not deaf themselves, who have little knowledge of the feelings and needs of the deaf, competent to decide this matter? I think not. But I do think that the impressions of the educated deaf should be given due consideration in a matter which so vitally affects them. Therefore, I ask permission of the reader to present my personal experience, together with a few impressions gained from my association with other deaf people.

I entered school at the age of eleven, not knowing a single sign. Yet the daily chapel services were a source of interest to me. I felt the awe of the occasion. I felt that I had a part in the worship—that the services were

of the life and works of Moses, continuing the narrative for several weeks. Some time afterward that teacher took a party of boys and girls out for a walk during a holiday. In the course of their walk they had to cross a small stream. One little girl, not considered very bright, who had been at school but three terms, went up to the teacher, and made the following surprising remark, in signs: "That," pointing to the stream, "is the Red Sea; we are the Jews, and you are Moses."

Further on in this article will be found more evidence that very young pupils get much instruction from the morning lectures.

But even if the youngest pupils do not comprehend the lectures, is that a sufficient reason why the morning prayers should be abolished? Is it not sometimes well for children to observe what they do not understand? Should a child be kept from going on the ice until it has learned to skate, from the water until it has learned to swim? The atmosphere of these morning services, the reverential attitude of teachers and older pupils, the enforced quiet and attention, are not these salutary to the child?

It has been suggested, as an improvement upon the general morning assembly in the chapel, that each teacher hold a brief service, adapted to his own class, in the school-room. But much would be lacking in such a service. There would be none of the impressiveness of the large gathering in the chapel. The moral atmosphere would be wanting in great measure. The school-room is a secular place, suggestive of wearisome tasks, impatience, worry, hustle, bustle, and discipline. Moreover, the conduct of these school-room services, devolving upon one teacher every day, would eventually become monotonous, little time or thought would be given to their preparation, and there would be little variety. In the chapel, the lecturers, being subject to the criticisms of a large audience of pupils and teachers, are impelled to make careful preparation, both as to thought and delivery.

A great deal of the usefulness of these morning chapel services depends upon the way they are conducted. It is essential that they should be in the nature of simple, practical talks on some familiar text of the Bible, with plenty of illustrative incidents from real life.

In the Minnesota School for the Deaf, we make use of the chapel services, not only for moral and religious instruction, but also for more material teaching. The morning services are conducted by the male teachers in turn, the Superintendent occupying the platform on Sunday. A text from the Bible is written on the black-board. It is interpreted, applied, and illustrated, usually by simple stories and anecdotes, of a nature to interest and elevate. The teachers are requested by the Superintendent to devote a few minutes each day, in the school-room, to a review of the morning service. The teachers of the younger classes bring out, in simple language, the main points of the lecture, while in the older classes the pupils are often required to write an outline of the lecture. This requirement induces the pupils to be more attentive than they otherwise would be. It cultivates attention, concentration, memory, selection, and the power of reproduction.

Our teachers have made it a frequent practice to give brief biographical sketches of noted persons, to illustrate the virtues of patience, perseverance, courage, honesty, generosity, etc. Below is a list of persons whose lives have thus been sketched for the benefit of the pupils. It is far from a complete list, but it will give an idea of the breadth of the ground covered, and the possibilities of instruction contained in the brief time allowed for the morning service :

George Whitefield.
St. Francis of Assisi.
Abraham Lincoln.
Benjamin Franklin.

George Washington.
John Wesley.
Charles Spurgeon.
George Peabody.

Dr. Jenner.	Andrew Jackson.
Geo. W. Curtis.	Dr. Morton.
J. A. Garfield.	Geo. W. Childs.
Chevalier Bayard.	Fridtjof Nansen.
Bernard Palissy.	Sir Philip Sidney.
Lieut. Peary.	J. B. Gough.
James Russell Lowell.	Warren Hastings.
John Wanamaker.	John C. Fremont.
Savonarola.	David Livingstone.
Walter Wren.	John Howard.
Henry M. Stanley.	Alfred J. Beveridge.
Florence Nightingale.	William Lloyd Garrison.
Ida Lewis.	Father Damien.
R. L. Stevenson.	Theodore Roosevelt.
Grace Darling.	Daniel Webster.
Lydia M. Child.	Phillips Brooks.

In addition to these biographical sketches, historical incidents are frequently narrated, such as the Siege of Calais, which was told only a short time ago, and tales of heroism from ancient and modern history.

The question may be asked: How much of these talks do the pupils understand? Below will be found an answer to this question, in the form of written accounts of one of the talks by two pupils of different grades.

About two months ago one of the teachers gave the pupils a series of talks on "The World's Heroes." Our pupils had been deeply interested in the Spanish-American War, and the object of the talks was to impress the boys and girls with the fact that all heroes are not soldiers. The lives of men like Savonarola, John Howard, and others were taken as illustrations. One morning there was given a sketch of the life of William Lloyd Garrison. Below are two reproductions of the same, written by pupils in the school-room. They may not be wholly accurate as to facts, but they are marvellously so, when we remember that they were written from memory, and from signs.

The first one, here appended, is the work of a pupil thirteen years old, who became deaf at eleven months, and had been but two full terms in school. The reproduction is given without correction, and is the pupil's unaided work :

This morning Mr. Smith lectured to us in the chapel about William Lloyd Garrison. His father went away on a voyage, and never returned. William Lloyd Garrison was a little boy. He did not go to school. He got many books and read them every day. He became very smart. His mother said to him, " You will be a shoe-maker." He replied, " I do not want to be a shoe-maker." He was fourteen years old. He could be a printer. He liked to work very much. He worked seven years. He was twenty-one years old. He had not much money. He went to Boston. He hunted for the printing-office. At last he found the printer in the printing-office. He said to an other printer, " I want to be a printer." The printer replied, " Yes sir." They worked in the printing-office. They made many newspapers. Then they sent them to many people. The negroes must free. The people mad at William Lloyd Garrison. He was stubborn. He worked in the printing-office every day. He sent the newspapers to the people several years. The people mad at him again. The mob of men went to the printing-office. They caught him and tied a rope around his body. He lay on the side-walk. They pulled the rope around his body to the woods. They went to the printing-office. They destroyed many cases of type. They threw them out of the windows. They hurt him. A policeman caught him and carried him in the jail. He took care of him. William Lloyd Garrison stayed in the jail several days. The negroes free. The people were gentle. He stopped to print in the printing-office.

I call attention to the above as an answer to the statement that the younger pupils do not get any benefit from the chapel services.

The second reproduction was written by a pupil seventeen years old, who became deaf at five and a half, and had been in school six full terms. Like the other, it is printed just as written, and the writer had no help from the teacher. Moreover, this pupil had no idea that a reproduction would be asked for, and was not spoken to about it until several hours later :

LIFE OF WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON.

William Lloyd Garrison, the anti-slavery leader, was born in Massachusetts, December 10, 1805. When he was a little boy, his father died in

a shipwreck. William and his mother were poor, and William seldom went to school. His mother could not afford much for his education. When William was fourteen years of age he received a position in a printing office in Massachusetts. He soon learned to print well and knew all about printing. He also learned reading & became wise. When he reached the age of seventeen, he could write good language, & began to write for his papers, & his master became interested in them, but he never knew that William wrote them. Later, he left his position, and established a small printing office in New Hampton, a village, but he was not successful in his business, so he removed to Boston and got work in another printing office. In that office, there was a man named Benjamin Lundy. He began to publish matters criticizing slavery. But he did not feel satisfied, so he asked William Lloyd Garrison if he would like to go to Baltimore with him. He was willing & they established a printing office there. Their paper was called *The Liberator*. They criticized slavery very strongly, and this brought the people of Baltimore to an excitement. They were soon against him. At last some men took William, & he was brought before a trial. He was tried & sentenced to a heavy fine, for which he was too poor to pay. So he was kept a prisoner for seven weeks, when a rich man in the north paid his fine, & he was released. Yet he did not give up his position. He went to Boston again & erected a printing office. He kept on publishing his paper. His strong points caused great excitement. Once he wrote a piece in his paper saying, "I am in earnest—I will not be equivocated—I will not excuse—I will not retreat and I will be heard." It is true he did what he said.

Finally in Boston, a mob entered his office. They took him, tied a rope around his body, & dragged him out in the streets. His office, with all his printing articles, were destroyed. The mob intended to hang William in the woods, but several policemen prevented the mob from going on any farther. William was kept in prison, until the mob was quieted, then he was set free.

In 1875, war broke out between the Union & the Confederacy. William Garrison still went on his work. The war resulted in freeing slavery. After the war ended, William stopped his work. After-wards he gave lectures, and sometimes wrote for editors. He went to England once more, and was greeted by the nobles. While there, he made several lectures. He came home, accompanying an Englishman. He also gave out speeches, but the people rose against him, so he had to flee to England. William lived in peace, and his life ended May 24, 1879, in New York. His funeral was attended by many influential people, & with much honor, in Boston.

He was one of the world's heroes, and he gave his life, mind, & strength, for the help of others. He is the leader who saved slaves from bondage.

It may be added that neither of the two pupils had ever read or heard of William Lloyd Garrison.

This article has no ulterior purpose of championing the sign-language, but I cannot refrain from asking one question of those who are opposed to the use of signs in the instruction of deaf children: If a biographical sketch of William Lloyd Garrison can be taken from an encyclopædia, rendered in signs, and then translated into such good English by such young pupils, is this language of gestures so crude, indefinite, and harmful an instrument as it has been called?

These morning chapel services, together with the Sunday services, are the nearest approach to real community of worship that the deaf can ever enjoy, unless, after leaving school, they are so fortunate as to live in places where they can join deaf congregations, such as those of St. Ann's, New York, and All Souls', Philadelphia. True community worship can never be felt by the deaf in a hearing congregation. The inspiring notes of the organ and the earnest exhortations of the minister are alike lost upon the deaf ear, and nothing short of the "Ephphatha" of the Master could ever give the deaf the spirit of true worship in such a place. It is there that the deaf realize most keenly their deprivation, and, instead of the solace of religion, they may be filled with a sense of discontent and of rebellion against their lot.

But when the deaf are in an assemblage of their own kind, with one who can address them in their own language, then is the spirit within them moved and exalted by the thoughts of truth and beauty which come to them through vivid "pictures in the air." Then do they feel, understand, and know.

Before the deaf enter school, community of worship is unknown to them. During vacations at home, they have it not, and after they leave school forever the majority will know it no more. Should we not pause, then, before we do away with morning chapel services in our schools, and thus deprive deaf children of the greater part of that true worship which they can hope for during life?

We have no doubt that those who favor the abolition of morning services in our schools are actuated solely by a desire to promote the best interests of the deaf children. Philanthropy is always a beautiful thing in theory, and it is lovely in practice when it is well directed. But misdirected philanthropy is too often a source of woe to the subjects of it. Æsop's good old man, who directed his servants to scrub the blackamoor until he became white, had the best intentions in the world, but that did not relieve the smart of the poor victim's skin.

Hearing people have their church services, their Sunday-school, their weekly prayer-meetings, Christian Endeavor meetings, Y. M. C. A. gatherings, etc. What of all this have the deaf? Yet they are moral beings, they desire community of worship.

I have written this article from the point of view of one who is deaf, and who has lived and worked among the deaf for a quarter of a century. If I have spoken too earnestly, it is because I feel so deeply. In conclusion, I would ask authorities of schools for the deaf to think well before they do away with morning prayers for the pupils. Let them try to put themselves in the place of the deaf children, and consider what it would mean to them if they were deprived of opportunities for congregational worship. And let them seriously question whether, in so depriving the deaf, they are not making an illustration of the Scriptural paradox: "From him that hath not shall be taken away even that which he hath."

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Instructor in the Minnesota School, Faribault, Minnesota.

THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES. REPORT OF A VISIT, AND A FURTHER CONTRIBUTION TO THE QUESTION OF METHODS.*—I.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS. OBJECT OF THE VISIT.

“Education gives a person nothing but what he could have evolved out of himself. Education gives him what he could have evolved out of himself, but more quickly and easily.”

With these words, Lessing, in his “Education of the Human Race,” uttered a truth that we find in the works of the greatest educators; for nearly all of them agree that instruction and education can create nothing, but can only develop and unfold existing capacities.

In opposition to this universal truth the adherents of the so-called Pure Oral method assume a negatory position. They attempt to develop in the congenital deaf-mute something—that is, speech—for which the natural disposition is lacking. They attempt to suppress in him something—that is, the sign-language—for which nature has predisposed him, and of which she has planted the seed ready for development. Hence the instability in the development of this branch of education; hence the harsh differences in the clash of opinions regarding purpose and end, means and ways; hence also an unrest and eccentricity among instructors of the deaf such as are to be found in equal measure among no other class of teachers.

According to the doctrines of the Pure Oral method, good articulation and accurate lip-reading form the Alpha and Omega of every endeavor. The deaf must speak, think in speech, and, like normal children, receive in-

* Translated from the German by GEORGE W. VEDITZ, M. A., Instructor in the Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.

struction exclusively by word of mouth. These demands have proved extravagant, and the proud shout, "*Vive la parole! Vive la méthode d'articulation!*" raised so jubilantly by the members of the Second International Congress of Instructors of the Deaf at Milan in 1880, an ill-considered demonstration. For sober experience teaches that it is impossible to carry all classes of deaf-mutes to an intelligible articulation and accurate speech-reading, and still more impossible satisfactorily to develop their latent mental powers by the application exclusively of speech.

Ten years have passed since the publication of my treatise, "*The Deaf-Mute and his Language,*"* and the arguments I brought against the Pure Oral method still remain unrefuted. On the contrary, more voices are raised from year to year confessing the insufficiency of the present educational process, demanding a thorough revision of our methods with due regard to the peculiarities of the deaf, and insisting on the use of such extraordinary means as shall adequately recognize the individuality of our pupils.

Under these circumstances, and considering the position that I have held for years toward the question of methods, I regarded it as a duty to examine conditions which had already stood the furnace-test of actual application, and which, according to all reports, seemed most commendable and most likely to relieve our crying need.

felt thanks to the "Society for the Instruction and Education of the Deaf in Breslau," which, by readily granting me the necessary furlough, as well as rendering pecuniary assistance, made the accomplishment of my plan possible. I also take this opportunity to tender my heartiest thanks to my friends in America—the superintendents and teachers of schools for the deaf, as well as many of the adult deaf—for all the kind attentions bestowed upon me, with the assurance that the days I spent in the New World will always be associated with the pleasantest of memories, and will, therefore, ever remain unforgotten.

I. EXTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOLS.

The history of the education of the deaf in America embraces a period of only eighty-two years, but the gigantic proportions that characterize everything American are most happily noticeable in this branch of humanitarian science.

After a superficial inquiry at the beginning of the century had disclosed the probable existence of over 2,000 deaf persons in the United States, the first school for the deaf was opened in 1817 at Hartford, Connecticut, with seven pupils. This school was straitened in means and wholly dependent upon private benevolence. From this insignificant plant there has grown, in a comparatively short time, a tree that yields fruit in abundance and that offers its hospitable shelter to every deaf child in the Union.

At present there are in the United States 95 schools for the deaf in which 11,500 pupils are being educated by 1,200 teachers. I regard it as noteworthy that, of these teachers, 450 are men and 750 women, 210 of the whole number being deaf.

Among the 95 schools, we find 56 State institutions

with 10,500 pupils, giving an average of about 200 pupils to a school. The remaining 39 schools are private and day schools, either under private management or connected with the public schools in the cities, and averaging about 25 pupils each.

The annual cost of maintenance per capita ranges, according to local circumstances, from \$250 to \$300. The 56 State schools require annual appropriations from the public treasuries of two millions, in round numbers. In the State of New York these appropriations are granted by the counties until the pupil is twelve years of age, and beyond this age by the State. In general, the cost of the maintenance is defrayed by the several States in which the pupils have their homes.

Like the schools for the blind, orphan homes, and hospitals, institutions for the deaf occupy most advantageous locations, and even in their exterior appearance contrast very favorably with neighboring estates. Surrounded by park-like grounds with carefully kept lawns, the shaded promenades afford the pupils exercise in the open air.

As the larger schools, with from 400 to 500 pupils, generally maintain kindergartens, and most of the pupils receive sufficient manual training to enable them to support themselves on leaving school, they usually consist of several buildings and are divided into departments which, though all are subject to one head, have each a principal of their own.

The period of instruction varies in the different States, ranging from six to twelve years. In the State of New York, however, the law provides for the education of every deaf child from the fifth to the twenty-third year of age at the expense of the State, and makes possible a course of instruction that begins with the kindergarten and covers every grade of the public school (primary, grammar, and academic).

The equipment of the schools, both external and internal,

is generous without being prodigal. A very pleasant impression is produced by the scrupulous cleanliness which never overlooks even the most obscure corners. The sanitary arrangements, looking to the physical well-being of the children, must be characterized as of the highest standard. Large school-rooms supplied with the latest educational appliances, and ample dormitories, dining-rooms, and workrooms, flooded with light and air, afford pupils, as well as officers, a pleasant, healthful home. Extensive play-grounds, practically equipped gymnasiums, shower-baths, and swimming-pools cater to physical exercise and provide recreation and relaxation for the pupils. Besides a regular physician and a dentist, specialists in diseases of the eye and ear, as well as of the nose and throat, watch over the health of the children. In incipient epidemics well-arranged hospital buildings make it possible to isolate the sick. As the food supplied is bountiful and nourishing, the well-fed pupils, in their natty uniforms, impress the spectator as being happy and contented children.

It is difficult to give the reader, by means of a mere pen picture, a clear conception of the extent of the grounds and the splendid appearance which the leading schools present externally. The Columbia Institution at Washington, for example, embraces nineteen buildings, including those of the farm in the rear, which supplies the Institution with milk and vegetables. The buildings, which resemble villas with their vine-clad verandas, lie scattered in a magnificent park, forming a symmetrical whole, and giving the impression of a pleasant garden city. The new buildings of the Pennsylvania Institution at Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, represent a value of about a million dollars. A central station furnishes the various buildings with electric light, heat, and warm water. This powerhouse, also, which on cold days consumes from eighteen to twenty tons of coal, supplies motive power for the ma-

chinery in the various workshops. During the session 1896-'97, 709,271 pieces passed through the laundry machines of this Institution. During the same year the Institution bakery furnished, in addition to various cake and pastry, 108,413 pounds of bread. To give an idea of the magnitude of the consumption of food in this Institution, I will append the articles of food consumed during the year, and the bill of fare furnished the pupils on the different days of the week.

The following articles of food were consumed in the Pennsylvania Institution during the year ending September 30, 1897 :

Apples, dried, 789 pounds.	Ice, 270,338 pounds.
Apple butter, 1,801 pounds.	Lard, 3,498 pounds.
Beef, 65,437½ pounds.	Mutton, 25,768¾ pounds.
Beef, dried, 585 pounds.	Milk, 75,028 quarts.
Beef tongues, 59.	Molasses, 166¾ gallons.
Bread, 108,413 pounds.	Meal, corn, 349 pounds.
Biscuit, 8,798½ dozen.	Macaroni, 42 pounds.
Butter, 15,261¾ pounds.	Oatmeal, 7,259 pounds.
Beans, dried, 2,789 pounds.	Oysters and clams, 20,256.
Buckwheat, 25 pounds.	Pork, 5,681 pounds.
Barley, 472½ pounds.	Poultry, 6,515½ pounds.
Cocoa, 142½ pounds.	Peaches, dried, 1,156 pounds.
Coffee, Java, 2,226 pounds.	Peaches, canned, 62 cans.
Coffee, Rio, 2,827 pounds.	Pears, dried, 487 pounds.
Cream, 532 quarts.	Prunes, dried, 2,921 pounds.
Currants, 561 pounds.	Peas, canned, 2,928 cans.
Corn, canned, 3,131 cans.	Powder, baking, 171 pounds.
Cakes, large, 321.	Pickles and sauce, 306 bottles.
Cakes, ginger, 22,691.	Pickles, loose, 14,000.
Crackers and cakes, 747½ pounds.	Pepper, black, 74 pounds.
Cracker dust, 92½ pounds.	Rice, 840 pounds.
Cheese, 520 pounds.	Rennet, 13 bottles.
Dates, figs, and nuts, 1,113 pounds.	Raisins, 238½ pounds.
Eggs, 6,295 dozen.	Syrup, 354½ gallons.
Flour, 447 barrels.	Sugar, granulated, 11,970 pounds.
Fish, 3,629½ pounds.	Sugar, A1, 15,700 pounds.
Flavoring extracts, 20 quarts.	Sugar, cube, 1,264 pounds.
Gelatine, 198 boxes.	Sugar, pulverized, 1,583 pounds.
Ham, 6,199 pounds.	Starch, corn, 345 pounds.
Hominy, 87 pounds.	Salt, 4,921 pounds.

on, 187 cans.	Tapioca, 71 pounds.
nes, 187 boxes.	Tea, 940½ pounds.
s, 156 pounds.	Veal, 12,985 pounds.
. oil, 103 quarts.	Vinegar, 272 gallons.
r-kraut, 100 gallons.	Vermicelli, 12 pounds.
, bicar., 53½ pounds.	Wheatlet, 580 pounds.
atoes, canned, 1,047 gallons.	Yeast, 444¾ pounds.

Vegetables :

ragus, 237 bunches.	Lemons, 358 dozen.
es, 399½ baskets.	Onions, 52 baskets.
i, 110 baskets.	Onions, green, 1,583 bunches.
nas, 609¾ dozen.	Oranges, 532 dozen.
s, lima, 257 quarts.	Potatoes, white, 1,278 bushels.
s, string, 28 baskets.	Potatoes, sweet, 185½ baskets.
berries, 168 quarts.	Parsnips, 12½ baskets.
age, 266 baskets.	Pumpkins, 84.
. 247 dozen.	Peas, 55½ baskets.
ts, 29¾ baskets.	Peppers, 22½ dozen.
y, 469 bunches.	Pineapples, 51.
mbers, 54½ dozen.	Peaches, 55¾ baskets.
anuts, 51.	Pears, 58½ baskets.
ge cheese, 628 quarts.	Plums, 44 baskets.
berries, 466 quarts.	Quinces, 4½ baskets.
nts, 76 pounds.	Radishes, 411 bunches.
ies, 246 pounds.	Rhnbarb, 1,325 bunches.
doupes, 4 baskets.	Raspberries, 109 quarts.
n, 4 baskets.	Salad, 1,301 heads.
plant, 234.	Spinach, 194 baskets.
e fruit, 241.	Squash, 16½ baskets.
berries, 86 quarts.	Strawberries, 1,306 quarts.
es, 3,023½ pounds.	Turnips, 72 baskets.
s, 840 bunches.	Tomatoes, 141½ baskets.
leberries, 182 quarts.	Watermelons, 31.

Diet Table of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.

	SUNDAY.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
BREAKFAST. Children over thirteen years of age may have coffee; thirteen and under, milk.	Milk One Egg or Hash. Bread Butter.....	Milk Oat meal..... Bread Butter..... Molasses or Sugar Fresh Beef Hash.	Milk Oat meal..... Bread Butter..... Molasses or Sugar Fresh Beef Hash.	Milk Grits..... Bread Butter..... Molasses or Sugar Fresh Beef Hash.	Milk Indian Mush Bread Butter..... Molasses or Sugar Fresh Beef Hash.	Milk Oat meal Bread Butter..... Molasses or Sugar Fresh Beef Hash.	Milk..... Grits..... Bread Butter Molasses or Sugar Fresh Beef Hash.
DINNER. Soup shall be made of Dried Beans or Peas, or Fresh Vegetables. Dinner may be occasionally varied by the substitution for Beef or Mutton of Poultry on Holidays, or of Oyster Soup in place of Fish or Corned Beef. Vegetables may be varied according to season. Fresh fruit may be given for Dessert in place of Stewed Fruit.	Roast Beef..... or Boiled Ham Gravy Potatoes..... Potatoes..... Beans or Beets..... Bread..... Stewed or Fresh Fruit.....	Roast Mutton..... Gravy Potatoes..... Cabbage or Tomatoes Bread Corn Starch or Tapioca.....	Rump Steak..... Gravy Potatoes..... Canned Corn Bread Corn Starch or Tapioca.....	Soup Stewed Beef..... Gravy..... Potatoes..... Tomatoes..... Bread	Roast Mutton..... Gravy..... Potatoes..... Canned Peas..... Bread Stewed Fruit	Egg or Fish or Corned Beef..... Butter..... Potatoes..... Canned Corn..... Bread..... Rice Pudding.....	Soup Roast Beef..... Gravy Potatoes..... Onions or Beets..... Bread.....
SUPPER. Children over thirteen years of age may have Tea; thirteen and under, milk.	Milk Bread Butter..... Apple Butter..... Ginger Cakes.....	Milk Bread Butter..... Stewed Apples.....	Milk Bread Butter..... Stewed Peaches.....	Milk Bread Butter..... Indian Mush	Milk Bread Butter..... Stewed Blackberries.....	Milk..... Bread Butter..... Stewed Prunes	Milk..... Bread Butter..... Molasses Cottage Cheese

During Lent, eggs are served at dinner instead of meat on Wednesdays and Fridays. Extra meals are provided on National Holidays.

II. INSTRUCTION AND EDUCATION.

A. Historical Development of Methods.

The education of the deaf in America is as closely associated with the name Gallaudet as in France and Germany with the names De l'Epée and Heinicke. Thomas H. Gallaudet, the first American teacher of the deaf was educated as a minister of the gospel. His wife was a deaf-mute lady of a highly respectable family. In 1889 the love and gratitude of the American deaf found expression in a noble monument to the memory of this philanthropist. This monument is at Kendall Green, in the suburbs of Washington, and stands in the midst of the park-like grounds of the Columbia Institution. It represents the master seated and teaching a little deaf girl the manual alphabet. The memory of this friend of mankind was further honored in 1894 by changing the name of the "National Deaf-Mute College" to "Gallaudet College." On the walls of one of the corridors of the new Congressional Library in Washington his name is accorded a prominent place among those of the most famous educators. Two sons of this good man, inheritors of his noble spirit, are even now, though well advanced in life, active in the service of the deaf—one as pastor and fatherly friend of the deaf of New York and the other, Dr. Edward M. Gallaudet, as the efficient President of the Columbia Institution at Washington.

In 1815, when the preparations toward founding the first school for the deaf in America had progressed so far that the acquisition of teachers was next to be considered, Thomas H. Gallaudet, at the request of the committee having the matter in charge, left on the 15th of May for Europe, to study the methods of teaching the deaf employed in the Old World. While English and Scotch teachers shrouded their art in a mysterious obscurity, and

placed all sorts of obstacles in the path of the foreign visitor, he was received with open arms at the Paris Institution by Sicard, the disciple and successor of De l'Épée. After he had finished his investigations here, he managed to secure in Clerc, a teacher at the Paris school, an auxiliary with whom he returned to America in August, 1816.

Under these circumstances, it is easily explained why the "American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb," opened at Hartford April 17, 1817, adopted the French method, as Clerc was himself a deaf-mute, and some of the State authorities regarded a course of two years as sufficient to equip the deaf with such knowledge and accomplishments as were necessary to their further progress through life.

This supposition was very soon found to be erroneous, and the expected results failed to materialize even when the course was extended to four and five years and the external equipment of the school was advanced in such a measure as to leave hardly anything more to be done in this direction. It became more and more apparent that the want of success was due to the insufficiency of the method of instruction, which imparted nothing besides written language and an elaborate system of signs that even attempted to assimilate the grammatical relations and component parts of speech.

These unsatisfactory results gave rise to a peremptory demand for an improvement in the system of instruction, and in 1845 the trustees sent Mr. Weld, then Principal of the School, to Europe, with instructions to examine into the results achieved in European schools in general, and into the results of oral teaching in particular. After having received Mr. Weld's report on his return, the Directors of the School adopted the following resolution :

Voted, in view of the facts and results obtained by Mr. Weld during his late visit to various institutions for the education of deaf-mutes in

Europe, that the directors will take efficient measures to introduce into the course of instruction in the Asylum every improvement to be derived from these foreign institutions; and with regard to teaching deaf-mutes to articulate, and to understand what is said to them orally, that they will give it a full and prolonged trial, and do in this branch of instruction every thing that is practically and permanently useful.

To the present day the Hartford School has adhered to this principle. Mr. Williams, now Principal of this School, and one of the ablest of living educators of the deaf, says in his last Report:

The management of the School is wisely conservative, but it does not move in old ruts and is wedded to no system. It examines and tests every innovation that gives promise of being an improvement and of being worthy of introduction. The School proves all things, and holds fast to that which is good, and therefore it stands to-day where it has always stood; that is, in the foremost rank of schools for the deaf.

Though oral instruction was introduced at Hartford in 1845, and "specialists in articulation" cultivated this branch, the Manual method remained prominent in all American schools, and articulation was accorded a very subordinate place, until 1867. In this year schools were established in New York and Massachusetts that attracted attention by their greater devotion to oral instruction, and in April, 1867, Dr. Gallaudet, President of the Columbia Institution at Washington, was authorized by his directors to undertake an extensive examination of the schools for the deaf in Europe, in order to ascertain to what extent, if at all, it would be desirable to introduce articulation into the Columbia Institution.

After visiting forty-four schools, Dr. Gallaudet was of the opinion that the best results were not to be achieved with any one method but with a system which combined the most valuable and effective features of the Oral as well as of the Manual method, and that it was urgently to be recommended that every deaf child should be given an opportunity to acquire speech, the prominence to be given one process or the other to depend upon the capacity and requirements of the pupil.

In consequence of this opinion, the directors of the Columbia Institution, in May, 1868, invited the principals of all the schools for the deaf of the Union to a conference in Washington to secure an exchange of opinions upon the recommendations of their President, especially in regard to the introduction of oral instruction for the deaf. The exhaustive discussions held resulted in a resolution that it was "the duty of all institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb to provide adequate means for imparting instruction in articulation and lip-reading to such of their pupils as may be able to engage with profit in exercises of this nature."

This resolution was amplified at the largely attended conventions in California and at Flint in 1886 and 1895, to the effect that "the system of instruction existing in America commends itself to the world, for the reason that its tendency is to include all known methods and expedients which have been found to be of value in the education of the deaf, while it allows diversity and independence of action, and works at the same time harmoniously aiming at the attainment of an object common to all."

Even these few historical facts demonstrate that American teachers of the deaf have for many years candidly recognized the importance of oral instruction in the education of the deaf, and that the question to which method they incline more, the French or the German, has been unequivocally answered, with this restriction, however, that a distinction must be made between the "German" and the "Pure Oral" method.

While the adherents and exponents of the latter attach the greatest importance to intelligible articulation, the great majority of American teachers place mental development above purity of articulation and recognize a complete mastery of the language of their country as the goal of their endeavor. Proceeding from the correct perception that speech presents a feature of verbal language which

offers insurmountable difficulties to many deaf-mutes, they seek to save what may yet be saved, and try with every means at their command to bring such deaf-mutes to an understanding of at least written language, and thus to preserve them from mental marasmus.

Though there is thus general unanimity regarding the end and purpose of instruction, there is yet a vigorous difference of opinion regarding the ways and means to be followed and employed, and there is an active rivalry and competition which can only result advantageously to the education of the deaf in America, inasmuch as, different internal and external circumstances being duly considered, the system is saved from stagnant uniformity.

If we call the process in vogue in German schools a Pure Oral method, it will be clearly perceived from this name alone that articulate speech forms the basis of the entire system of instruction. The Americans have been less fortunate in the nomenclature of their methods, for it is difficult to determine, from the names applied, the precise means of instruction and intercourse. While I now enumerate and briefly characterize these methods, I refer the uninitiated to the following chapter, which will explain more fully the nature of the various forms of language, as well as the relative importance which, in my opinion, they possess for the deaf.

B. The Methods Themselves.

1. *The Manual Method.*—In this method the manual alphabet, the sign-language, and writing form the principal means of instruction, while articulation is either wholly excluded or regarded as of inferior importance as an object of instruction. As this method of instruction, which still possesses a certain similarity to the French method, is in process of extinction and is at present employed as the sole method in only four schools containing seventy-two pupils altogether, I believed it unnecessary to visit such a

school, all the more so as I had opportunity to observe at the Pennsylvania Institution classes of dull pupils in which this method was applied, the conventional sign-language, however, being suppressed as far as possible.

The pupils who enter the Pennsylvania School at the beginning of a new school year are at first all instructed according to the same process. A method is employed which would have the greatest similarity to the work in German schools for the deaf were it not that a large part of the school hours of the children is filled with kindergarten occupations. The fifty or sixty children are grouped, after mental and physical development has been fully considered, into five or six parallel classes and, as is the case with us, instructed in articulation, lip-reading, reading and writing. After a preliminary course of two or three years, there is a radical separation of the pupils. While the majority are transferred to the "Oral Department," the rest, who have shown themselves unable to answer the requirements of oral instruction, are assigned to the "Manual Department." With these latter, instruction in articulation now generally ceases altogether. In its place the manual alphabet is used, and the main purpose is to teach these pupils, who are mostly dull children, written language, dispensing as far as possible with the conventional language of signs. Even as late as 1882 the Manual method predominated in this school to such an extent that out of 365 pupils only 48 were instructed according to the German method, and 317 with the aid of the manual alphabet. This proportion has been reversed in favor of oral instruction, so that out of 509 pupils 416 are at present taught in the Oral and 93 in the Manual Department, or about 20 per cent. of the whole are excluded from oral instruction—a percentage, however, which Dr. Crouter, the Superintendent of the School, hopes to be able to reduce a little more in the course of the next few years.

The silent processes of the Manual method produce at

first an unsatisfactory impression upon a teacher who has taught exclusively by the Oral method, and who is therefore accustomed to estimate the work of a class according to how the pupils speak and what he hears from their lips. But the picture receives a better coloring when one watches the mental alertness of these originally slow children, and observes the interest with which they follow the lesson, and the proficiency with which they give written answers to questions in the various branches they have been taught.

My visit to American schools for the deaf was during the closing weeks of the term, and, therefore, during examination time. Besides the usual school-room work, the pupils of certain classes in most of the schools had to sustain written examinations whose purpose was to render to the directors, superintendents, and teachers account of the condition of instruction. While I may lay stress on the circumstance that I was especially impressed by the honesty of our American colleagues, in that not a single attempt was made to influence my opinion of the general condition of the schools by presenting special achievements of the pupils, these class examinations were particularly calculated to give any one a clear idea of their attainments and capacities.

The work of the dull pupils in the Manual classes of the Pennsylvania Institution far surpassed my expectations. The children possessed practical information that as a rule is not taught in classes of the C and D grades in German schools, while in their language development they stood on a par with our pupils of normal mental endowment. To substantiate this statement, I will submit the following letter, selected from a great many written exercises I collected at the time. The letter was written within thirty minutes, and entirely without aid, as an examination exercise, by a boy in his eighth year at school.

Mt. Airy, Phil'a, Pa'.

June 15, 1898.

Mr. McKinley..

The President of the U. S.

Washington, D. C.

Dear Sir :—

I send my best congratulations to you when you issued the proclamation which must make the Cubans free from Spain. I expect you will have a good administration for four years. My brother is on the Massachusetts. He has been six years in the navy. He shows his love and sincerity for the U. S.

I am a republican. When I leave school, I will support him for presidency in 1900. We are progressing our lessons for examination. I like to study hard lessons.

There are about 500 pupils in this school. Some pupils who will be graduated, will go to the Gallaudet College in Washington, D. C.

Will you visit this school? I think you will have a good time here.

Expecting you will write a letter to me, soon as, I will be pleased to get it.

I send my best wishes and regards to you.

Yours Truly,

E. C.

2. *The Oral Method* is similar to the method in vogue with us, but with this difference, that the Americans make a more extensive use of written language; that is, they require more writing and attach more importance to reading.

This method is used especially in the small private schools with from 20 to 25 pupils, most of whom belong to the better classes, and pay an annual fee of \$1,000 or more, and therefore demand thorough individual instruction. These schools are thus aristocratic institutions, luxuriously appointed boarding-schools, whose large teaching force enables them to place their pupils, from early morning until late at night, under the supervision of attendants and to exercise an uninterrupted oral influence over them.

Among the fifty-six State schools there are, besides the Oral Department of the Pennsylvania Institution, only seven institutions, with 571 pupils altogether, in which this method is employed exclusively. Among these the Clarke School at Northampton, Mass., especially, enjoys

an extensive reputation, and has been frequently referred to in our German publications.

I had the pleasure of becoming acquainted with this school, carried on under the efficient management of Miss Yale, on the occasion of a public examination and while it was in holiday attire. I had thus an opportunity to observe how American schools for the deaf present themselves to the public on special occasions. The examination itself consisted of an exhibition of the several classes in the different school-rooms, and ended with a festivity in the chapel, on which occasion four of the pupils, who had just finished the course, were awarded certificates in due form. The numerous friends and patrons of the school followed the instruction in the different classes with visible interest, and listened attentively to the reading of the comprehensive essays the four graduates had prepared, as was stated, unaided, and upon subjects of their own choice. These artistically finished essays exhibited a wealth of thought and a skill in expression such as we should look for in vain in German schools. This phenomenon may be explained by the circumstance that, in American schools of this kind, insistence is laid, from first to last, upon furthering the mental development of the pupils by teaching them as soon as possible to *understand* language, and requiring more practice of it in its written form. Without neglecting speech, the best oral schools attach the first importance rather to the acquisition of general knowledge and an intelligent use of language than to mere oral attainments. With a correct appreciation of the circumstance that the speech of the deaf, in most cases, must remain very defective, and is therefore all the more calculated to draw attention to their infirmity, the essays mentioned above were not read by the pupils themselves, but by one of the teachers.

If the Oral method is to produce measurably satisfactory results—the children being supposed to be sound

mentally—it is necessary that each individual teacher should have a clear conception of his task, should go to his daily work with a certain enthusiasm, and that the whole corps should work together with singleness of purpose. These conditions, which exist to perfection in the Clarke School at Northampton, I did not find in all the oral schools I visited, and I had therefore occasion to observe results in different schools that compared with one another as day and night. In one small school that attempted to imitate the Northampton model I had to witness all the wretchedness of the Pure Oral method, and became painfully aware of the mischief that may be perpetrated by this method under an unfortunate combination of circumstances which make its exclusive use appear simply pernicious. Whether the majority of the pupils of this school were originally feeble-minded, or whether an erroneous treatment had smothered all mental activity, I was, of course, unable to determine, but the fact remains that this school made the impression rather of an asylum for idiots than of a school for the deaf. The pupils, who were forbidden to use gestures and had not been taught the manual alphabet, were expected to speak, and could not speak; they were expected to read from the lips and answer questions, and had not the faintest idea of what the teacher said or asked. No less pitiful than their oral attainments was their comprehension of written language. Some of the older pupils, in their seventh or eighth year at school, were nonplussed by the following example: “One pound of meat costs 15 cents; what will 3 pounds cost?” The simplest tasks in addition and subtraction of numbers not exceeding 1,000 presented the greatest difficulties. Questions regarding garden and field products and the usefulness or otherwise of familiar animals remained unanswered. A few well-drilled phrases regarding the war, Spain and Cuba, the weather, the time of day, and the seasons were the total repertory of this so-called oral school.

I was afforded an instance that was simply amusing, of the aberrations and absurdities to which the doctrine that deafness is no valid reason for dumbness may lead, in one establishment that receives deaf children from two to eight years of age and attempts to render schools for the deaf, as a whole, superfluous. The head of this establishment is of the opinion that the dumbness of the congenitally deaf, or those deaf from infancy, is wholly due to the ignorance and carelessness of their hearing parents and friends. According to this lady, speech is as visible as it is audible, and therefore the deaf child, if duly admonished by the parents and brothers and sisters to watch their speaking lips, would unconsciously come into the possession of speech just like a hearing child. In consequence of this theory, she regards all systematic speech instruction as superfluous, and recommends in its place a procedure that goes beyond even the purest of pure Oral methods, viz., a sort of babble and rebabble method, according to which one must diligently babble to the little ones and patiently wait until they babble in reply. She is convinced that about six years of babble will remove the dumbness of a deaf child, and that after having completed this babble course it will be able to attend the common school with its brothers and sisters. Far, there are mysterious rumors of one pupil within the experiment has been successful. As the school established more than six years ago, Hercules must be very near the parting of the ways, and it must be ascertained how well fitted the pupils are to pursue their education in the common schools. The principal acknowledges that certain cases may require many years to reach the expected goal, and from all that could be observed she will be compelled to make a most extensive use of this reprieve, for at the time of my visit all of her pupils were still very deaf and dumb. I fear, however, that even a longer course will fail to secure the

desired results, and that nothing will remain but to send the well-prepared children to some school for the deaf. It must be acknowledged that the children do in a measure profit from being continually spoken to, that after some years they become quite proficient in lip-reading, and that their use of and comprehension of language is respectable. Further, I must not omit to say that the spirit of loving-kindness pervades the school, that the training is of the best, and that these little deaf children receive a good foundation for their further education.

The principle of family training forms the basis of the whole scheme of this establishment. The pupils are grouped, according to age, in little families and assigned to conscientious foster-mothers. It is evident that there can be no systematic school training with little children of from two to eight years, but that the principal object must be to secure a thorough kindergarten course, which is especially valuable for such children as may be orphaned or who fail to find at home the care and attention that should be theirs. Finally, the process may be well calculated to retain or develop speech in such children as became deaf after the period of speech acquisition or who on account of defective hearing failed to learn how to speak. Therefore, even if this nursery home for young deaf children aims too high and attempts to prove untenable hypotheses, it must nevertheless be regarded as a scheme that presents noteworthy and commendable features.

3. *The Auricular Method* consists of the instruction of persons with defective hearing, who are either altogether unable to attend the public school or at best can do so with but partial success, by means of auricular appliances or even by the use of only a loud tone of voice. Speech and writing, therefore, form the means of instruction in this method, and the whole process offers more similarity to the instruction of hearing children than to that of deaf-mutes.

In this method, therefore, we do not deal with "systematic hearing exercises," such as have caused a great sensation in recent years, and of which it was predicted that they would produce a revolution in our methods, but rather with a practical utilization of any existing remnant of hearing according to the principles set forth in my treatise, "*Hearing Deaf-Mutes.*"* The sweet intoxication in which the adherents of these auricular exercises indulged, when they assumed that by means of proper exercises they could restore hearing to the deaf either wholly or in part, has, in America as well as in Europe, been followed by a sober awakening, and these efforts have been virtually abandoned.

The Auricular method is employed only in the largest schools. At present it is applied in thirteen institutions, upon 140 pupils. As pupils who should receive instruction through the ear are very few in our schools, and as the difficulty of forming classes of them is greater in small schools, and as, further, such pupils can hardly be classed as deaf-mutes, it would be better not to count this process at all as a method of deaf-mute instruction. In succeeding portions of this report I shall not refer to this method again.

4. *The Combined System* is the dominant system in the United States. It is employed in State schools containing over 8,000 pupils, and consists in the application of the several means of communication that have, so far, proved their utility in the education of the deaf. Speech, the manual alphabet, the sign-language, and writing are the instruments with which the Combined System works, and the favor accorded one or the other of these means depends upon the capability and educational development of the pupil.

* An English translation of this treatise was published in the *Annals* for April, June, and September of last year, and has been reprinted separately in pamphlet form.

It is one of the fundamental tenets of the Combined System to teach the art of speech to all pupils, if possible. Therefore, as soon as the pupil enters school, a systematic course in articulation, starting with the elements of speech, is begun. As this process, however, consumes much time and presents much more difficulty than the acquisition of the manual alphabet and of writing, and as, further, the adherents of this system attach great importance to opening an early intellectual intercourse with the pupils, so as to awaken their interest in their studies and satisfy their physical activities as well as their desire of communication, the instruction from beginning to end is systematically arranged in separate speech and language courses.

While the instruction in articulation, which lasts an hour daily and extends through the entire school life, begins with the development of the individual sound elements, the silent instruction in language begins at once with words, and advances after the first few weeks to the construction of simple sentences.

The process observed in this language-teaching is as simple as it is diverting to the children. The teacher introduces into the class, consisting of eight or ten children, some object—as, for example, a dog, either a live specimen, a model, or a picture—making short pantomimic remarks about the same, in which the children join vivaciously. The gestures employed in this pantomimic conversation are perfectly natural, such as any one could understand, and are intended to awaken the interest of the children, stimulate their thoughts, and open their minds for the exercises that are to follow. After the shyest and most timid of the children have been encouraged to contribute their little mite of canine biography, the teacher spells the name of the animal on his fingers, at the same time writing the word “dog” on the slate, and intimating that the manually spelled and the written letters are iden-

tical in meaning, and that the pupils may indicate the animal either in one way or the other. After the children have been sufficiently drilled in writing and manually spelling the word "dog," the same process is repeated with other familiar objects—as, for example, cat, rat, ox, cow, horse, fish, duck, pig, etc. In order to prevent any confusion and to make this linguistic treasure the inalienable possession of the children, exercises in manifold variety are connected with the very first words.

a. The teacher spells the name of one of the objects described in the manner above, and the child points to the corresponding object.

b. The teacher points at some object, and the pupils spell the name on their fingers.

c. The teacher points to a written word on the black-board, and the children point out the proper object.

d. The teacher points at some object, and the children point out the name on the black-board.

e. The teacher rubs the names off the black-board, spells the name of some object on his fingers, and the children write it on the wall-slates.

f. The teacher points at some object, and the children write the name.

These exercises may be considerably increased as soon as the teacher, as is often the case, makes lip-reading an auxiliary in the language lesson, and encourages the children from the first to watch his lips and to connect the oral image with the object and with the written and spelled word. For, with careful practice, the little one is in a limited measure able to read the words from the lips before he has learned to speak, so that the articulate word of the teacher also serves to reproduce the object, the spelled and the written name. The sequence in which this drill should be practised is of secondary importance, and is left to the practical judgment of the teacher. The results of the Combined System show that language

instruction based on direct object-lessons is practicable before the pupil can speak. Even during the first year the children acquire a vocabulary of from 450 to 500 words belonging to the different parts of speech, and coming into use in simple sentences. The hand serves the pupil as organ of speech, for with the hand he spells (by the manual alphabet), writes and reads, and in order that the children may not tire from this certainly exhausting occupation, pantomimic conversations at the introduction of new objects serve to revive and refresh the lagging little spirits.

In the school at Hartford I requested a teacher to go into her classroom at recess, supply her pupils with writing materials, and tell them to observe and write down such things as might soon happen. The pupils, who were from nine to ten years of age, and in their third year at school, thereupon described within from ten to fifteen minutes some occurrences which I had pre-arranged myself, and which will be understood from the following composition of a ten-year-old congenitally deaf boy :

Mr. Heidsiek came into the room and gave Miss Sweet some peanuts—Miss Sweet said that she thanked him. She laid the peanuts in the box and went out. Jenny went to the table and took the peanuts out of the box. She put them in her pocket and sat down again in her seat. Soon afterwards Miss Sweet came back into the schoolroom and saw that the nuts were gone. She asked Jenny, "Who stole the nuts?" Jenny answered, "No, I do not know." Lucy said that Jenny had stolen the nuts. Mr. Williams was very much surprised and said, "You are a naughty girl, it is wicked to steal." He placed Jenny in the corner.

I observed similar results of the Combined System in the lower classes of the schools at New York, Washington, and Frederick, Maryland, and found that most of the pupils had advanced far enough after the third year to be able to speak what they had written, and that, too, with the same differences in regard to distinctness and indistinctness of pronunciation as occur in German schools.

The results in the intermediate and upper classes correspond to those in the lower grades, and the character of the whole educational process becomes more and more similar to the Oral method in vogue with us. This is true, however, of a portion of the pupils only. For in most cases it is possible to determine after the second or third year whether a continuation of oral instruction is advisable; if not, the pupil may be assigned to a manual class, and abandon articulation altogether.

The Combined System, therefore, should not be regarded as a single process of instruction, but rather as a complex system in which speech, the sign-language, the manual alphabet, and writing are employed in the most diverse combinations, according to the idiosyncrasies of the pupil.

5. *The Manual Alphabet Method* may be characterized as one form of the Combined System. It assumes a peculiar position in the circumstance that it attempts to avoid the use of the sign-language altogether, not only in the school-room, but in the intercourse of the pupils during leisure hours, while it makes the most extensive use of the finger-language or manual alphabet. This method, which is employed exclusively only in the school at Rochester, and is therefore also called the Rochester method, has, so far, found its only representative in Dr. Westervelt, Superintendent of this school.

Mr. Westervelt is a born teacher of the deaf, a man full of moral earnestness, who is absorbed in his work, and glows with the high resolve to so perfect his method of instruction and education that it may give the deaf-mute, severely handicapped by nature, all that pedagogic skill can bestow upon him, to be his for time and eternity. In his leisure hours he not only studies petty questions of special methods with painstaking thoroughness, but he also endeavors to make use of the mental gifts with which God has endowed him in the investigation of general didactic and pedagogic principles. "It is the principle

of our method of instruction that the child has a right to receive instruction through that form of our language which he can understand most readily, with the least strain of attention, and the least diversion from the thought to the organ of its expression." This single sentence, richer in its meaning than long treatises that have recently been written to justify the Pure Oral method, sufficiently defines the philosophical basis on which Mr. Westervelt has built his method.

The Manual Alphabet method employs the manual alphabet, speech, and writing as means of instruction, and stands midway between the Oral method and the Combined System. If to these means were added the sign-language, there would be nothing to distinguish the method from the Combined System. If, however, it were to discard the manual alphabet, the Oral method would remain, and that, too, in a purity such as we might find in very few German schools. Referring to this circumstance and being asked whether he could not decide to take such a step and exclude the manual alphabet from his method, Mr. Westervelt answered thoughtfully: "Confronted with this alternative, I am not sure but that I should prefer to give up speech rather than the manual alphabet. After dispensing with the manual alphabet, the sign-language would find means of entry, and the School would decline to be responsible for such an exchange."

The procedure of the Rochester method is wholly similar in its first stages to the practice of the Combined System, which I have already described, and with which I became more closely acquainted at the Hartford School. For Mr. Westervelt is not a declared foe of all signs, but makes unrestricted use of natural gestures at all stages of the course of instruction. But he watches carefully lest these gestures should be developed into a conventional sign-language, which, as soon as it becomes the vehicle of thought of the deaf-mute, exercises a most deleterious influence upon the acquisition of verbal language.

These tenets of Dr. Westervelt's have given me much food for thought, and I do not hesitate openly to acknowledge that since my visit to the Rochester School my position toward the sign-language has undergone some modification.* But, to show the reader in outline how the process of instruction is conducted at Rochester, I will let Mr. Westervelt speak for himself, by giving the following extracts from a letter containing answers to various questions I put to him soon after my return from my visit:

It is a pleasure to answer your letter, and especially as I am gratified by the interest in our work which your brief visit to our school aroused. I will proceed at once to answer your questions.

Children are received into our Kindergarten, at public charge, who are under twelve and over five years of age. During your visit you saw a few who were younger. We have received them as young as three when conditions made it advisable. Children, as a rule, remain in the Kindergarten until they are twelve. Exceptionally bright children make such advancement as enables them to take up the work of the graded classes earlier.

All the occupations, gifts, plays, and mother talks of the Kindergarten enter into our instruction of the little ones; at the same time they receive systematic training in speech, speech-reading, and language. It is the custom, in class exercises, for the teachers to speak and spell simultaneously; language exercises are written upon the large wall-slates. The leaflet that is printed daily at the Institution is used in the language training of the little ones.

The little children are formed in groups, averaging seven pupils each, and each group goes in rotation daily to eight teachers, and has with each from thirty to forty minutes' instruction. Every teacher has a specialty, in which she instructs all groups in turn. These are: 1, Speech; 2, Speech-reading; 3, Language; 4, Number work; 5, Froebel gifts and exercises; 6, Sewing; 7, Drawing and modelling; 8, Sloyd and woodwork. Teachers and pupils meet together daily in "the morning circle" for mother stories and to play games; so that language training and practice through the manual alphabet, speech and speech-reading, and instruction in articulation, writing, number, and all kinds of kindergarten occupations have their daily periods.

The children begin to read print and script during the first school year. The manual alphabet is the common means of communication, and does not so much precede speech as it exceeds it. Our little children love

*In my previous writings it is not the relation of the deaf to the sign-language, but the relation of the sign-language to verbal language, that I have judged wrongly.

to have stories told to them by manual spelling, just as little hearing children do by speech, and while their apprehension of what is told to them may be vague, yet they seem to absorb the story, language and all, and follow every repetition with growing interest. In this way, during their first year they become familiar with a considerable vocabulary.

With the first days in school, systematic preparation for speech and speech-reading is begun. Soon after they learn to use words by manual spelling, the brighter children begin to speak them, with imperfect articulation, to be sure, but with these early efforts at speech the aim is the awakening of interest in a new faculty and the inciting of the pupils to attempt the intelligent use of the vocal organs rather than the securing of careful articulation, or even intelligibility, though the teacher always understands. We expect children of average intelligence to learn to speak three hundred words their first year. Little children have few concepts, and a limited vocabulary is sufficient to meet their requirements. As their language needs grow, the vocabulary keeps pace in both spelling and speech. Daily speech training is continued throughout the whole school course. Special teachers give as much attention to speech training as may be necessary to maintain a high standard of excellence. In the higher classes, however, these daily periods are used less for speech training than for the oral teaching of the regular course studies.

The larger part of our pupils do not understand the conventional sign-language, for it has never been used in intercourse with them. Perhaps ten per cent. of our pupils are familiar with the sign-language; some of these, before coming here, attended schools in which it was used, and some have deaf parents or relatives who were taught through signs, with whom they, at home, necessarily use that language; but such pupils do not use signs here, because we do not allow the use of any other language than English, and because if one who knows how to use the language of signs were to use them inadvertently his associates could not understand him.

There seems to be an almost universal impulse to make motions to the deaf, and children naturally acquire any language which is constantly or persistently used to them. If the manual alphabet were forbidden here, a tendency to develop a sign-language would soon manifest itself, and this would be especially true if the conditions required communication from pupils of immature judgment with those much younger, whose limited attainments they did not consider.

The manual alphabet is commonly used in conversation at a rate of from one hundred to two hundred and fifty words a minute. An audience of two hundred follows an address an hour long, without strain or weariness, delivered at the rate of eighty to one hundred and fifty words a minute. In the recitation of matter familiar to both reciter and hand-reader, by skilled experts, a rate of four hundred words a minute has been attained without confusion, but two hundred words a minute is customary and is easily uttered and read. The manual alphabet is a

better medium for class-room instruction than script, as the instructor can present matter with less labor, more rapidity, and at the same time can avail himself of the facial expression and the emphasis that make speech effective. There are, however, exercises for which script upon large wall-slates and paper is used to advantage. Manual spelling is the readiest and most satisfactory substitute for ordinary oral intercourse, more easily seen and more readily understood than the motions made by the lips, and better adapted for instruction in unfamiliar subjects which introduce new vocabulary.

Our pupils use the manual alphabet in conversation among themselves, but at home, with those whose use of manual spelling would be labored, they prefer to speak and to be spoken to. Their drill in speech and their practice in recitations and in conversation with hearing officers of the school, their large vocabularies and general information acquired through manually spelled intercourse and reading, qualify them to read the lips of their home friends with as much ease and assurance, if not with greater ease than if they had in all their school intercourse been restricted to lip-reading. I am confident that our school would stand higher in a comparative examination in speech and speech-reading than any other of the oral schools of the State, as it has done for several years in language work.

Ours is an Oral method, as all of our pupils are taught to speak, and speech takes a constant and conspicuous part in all our school work; but those who use this term to designate a method which eschews manual spelling would feel that we were guilty of misrepresentation if we adopted it. We could not use the term "Combined method," as that has been given a technical meaning throughout this country that restricts it to such methods of teaching the deaf as require the De l'Épée language of gesture signs to be the root, trunk, bark, leaves, and blossoms of the tree of knowledge, leaving for other elements of the "combine" only the chance to act as the wood of the branches through which, however, the sign sap would flow.

The name Manual Alphabet method was not chosen by me to distinguish our method of instruction. Our State examiners, in order to characterize distinctively the methods followed in the different schools, classified them according to the medium of communication used by the pupils of each institution in their free intercourse among themselves. Inasmuch as the pupils here talk to one another by means of the manual alphabet, this is called a Manual Alphabet school, and its method the Manual Alphabet method. We had previously designated ours as the Vernacular method, as it furnishes the best means of making the deaf acquainted with the language of their country.

These explanations of Dr. Westervelt's might in certain places create the impression that the writer of the letter was trying to place his method in the best possible light.

But there is not the least necessity for self-glorification on his part, for the school at Rochester has long won the widest recognition by its splendid achievements, and competent judges have submitted opinions of its work so flattering as perhaps no other school of the kind may be able to produce.

The most enthusiastic and devoted advocate of the Oral method in the United States is Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, known as the founder of the Volta Bureau in Washington, and the creator of the telephone in its present perfection. Dr. Bell was at one time a teacher of the deaf, is married to a deaf lady, and expends untold sums in order to perfect the methods of teaching and educating the deaf. This remarkable man visited the Rochester School some years ago, and I cannot refrain from giving a few extracts from the report of a conversation in which Mr. Bell reviewed his visit:

You should be proud of the fact that in your fair city is one of the best disciplined and most admirably conducted institutions in the country. Superintendent Westervelt is a man thoroughly fitted for the work, and he has inaugurated the most effective system in existence of training deaf-mutes. In the majority of schools the children are taught what is known as the sign-language—that is, the language is made known to and signified by them through gestures. This interferes with the progress of the child in the acquisition of the English language. In the Oral schools the English language is limited in its use because of the indistinctness of the movements of the lips, which does not give the young pupil a satisfactory medium of communication. * * * I anticipated great results theoretically from the methods in operation in this Rochester Institution, but I did not for a moment expect that the pupils had acquired such a knowledge of written English as they have shown themselves to possess. I selected five pupils, three boys and two girls, ages ten and nine years. I propounded to them questions in writing to which they gave written answers which astounded me. I have travelled a great deal and have seen a great many schools for the deaf, but never in all my experience have I seen displayed such remarkable intelligence and such genuine precocity. Why, some of them excel in their knowledge of things some of our boys and girls of their age who are blessed with the powers of speech and hearing. My inquiries were mainly directed to children who were born deaf, and to this particular type of deaf persons have I devoted my attention. I was especially pleased to see the

application of the kindergarten system here, which I consider admirable in its main features and arrangement. To Professor Westervelt belongs the credit of introducing and first practising this system among the deaf.

Professor Westervelt has made absolute demonstration of the fact that children who are born deaf can be taught the English language without the use of signs or gestures. Rochester should pride herself on having such an excellent and well conducted institution in her midst which has such an able superintendent.

This significant verdict must be corroborated by every visitor to the Rochester School who is competent to give an unbiased opinion of even such things as in the first moment produce a somewhat unusual impression.

It was on a Sunday, at the hot hour of noon, that I visited the school. A deep stillness reigned everywhere, and my eye glanced about in vain for the pupils, of whom I expected to find about 170. Only when I was conducted through the various apartments did I see little groups of pupils who had retired to the quietest corners, and were so absorbed in their reading that most of them failed to notice me. My conductor told me that the pupils of the intermediate and upper classes were required to read annually forty juvenile books, and to give the contents of some of them in epitome, either orally or in writing.

Those pupils who were taking the air in the gardens impressed me by their sedate demeanor. In their conversation I noticed no gestures, but communication was conducted exclusively by means of the manual alphabet and in such an unobtrusive manner that only a quick professional eye would have noticed it.

The same means of communication with a simultaneous use of speech was employed by Mr. Westervelt during chapel service. Mr. Westervelt is a virtuoso in the use of the finger-language, and in spite of the stifling heat that prevailed on that day, and that was uncomfortably noticeable in the crowded chapel, the pupils followed the discourse of their master with rapt attention and visible enthusiasm. With eloquent words and vivid illustrations,

Mr. Westervelt described the atrocities perpetrated on the Armenians, and at the end of a collection expressed the hope that he would be able to send at the close of the year \$1,000 to an English missionary association for the education of poor Armenian orphans.

My observations of instruction and training coincide in every way with Dr. Westervelt's statements in the preceding letter, and my opinion of the results achieved in the Rochester School is the same as Dr. Bell's. The author of this report may likewise boast of having seen numerous schools at home and abroad, but even in the best of them he failed to meet results comparable with those seen in Rochester. It is not only the complete mastery of the English language that is so surprising here, but the amount of positive knowledge by which the pupils distinguish themselves is no less noteworthy. The pupils of the upper classes solved with equal accuracy and rapidity difficult problems in practical arithmetic, in interest and percentage, in calculations involving wages and prices, as well as in geometry. Questions in the domain of history, geography, and literature received answers that would have done honor to the pupils in the third class of our high schools. In general, these pupils were remarkable for their self-possessed bearing. They showed nothing of that deaf-mutish, childish, immature manner that is so unfavorably conspicuous with most of the deaf. And it is precisely this training to independence and mental maturity that is a characteristic feature of the Rochester School.

It will be evident from the preceding expositions that, for variety of methods, the education of the deaf in America hardly leaves anything to be desired, and that I was not disappointed in my expectation that I would find much instructive stimulus in the New World. But which, now, is the best method?

This question is not so easily answered, for it would be

premature and foolish to deduct the success or failure of a method from a few brilliant results. With an accidental combination of favorable factors even a mediocre method may exhibit satisfactory results, while on the contrary even the best method fails should it be applied unskilfully or under adverse circumstances. In all cases the teacher stands above the method, and all success depends chiefly upon his faithfulness, his industry, and his skill. It does not follow, however, that the method in its development is of merely incidental importance, for it must possess the same value to a teacher and the success of his work that a more or less perfect tool has in the hand of a mechanic or artist.

By the word "method" we understand in general a regular process, governed by certain principles, for the attainment of particular results. A methodical, theoretically sound process of instruction is therefore opposed to mere experimentation, mere random effort. But, as a rule, trial precedes the general theory, and it is the experiment that must lead to the scientific law.

The education of the deaf is still in the first stages of development—that is, in the stage of experiment—for, as will have been seen from the foregoing explanations, the differences between the methods consist principally in the application and combination of the most diverse means of communication. One tries speech, another the sign-language, the third regards writing as the most efficient means of communication, while a fourth thinks he can overtrump them all with the manual alphabet. We should, therefore, hardly assume that the means of communication mentioned are of equal value, and in the same manner it cannot, in my opinion, be immaterial in what combination they are applied. Therefore, in order to estimate the different methods at their true value and to be able to say which of them deserves precedence, some theoretical discussion may here be in place concerning the nature of

the different mediums of thought in general, as well as the educational value which they possess, especially for the deaf.

J. HEIDSIEK,
Instructor in the Breslau Institution, Breslau, Silesia, Prussia.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

EXHIBIT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN THE PARIS EXPOSITION OF 1900.

GALLAUDET COLLEGE,
WASHINGTON, D. C., *March 22, 1899.*

*To Superintendents and Principals of
Schools for the Deaf in the United States.*

DEAR FRIENDS: Having been recently appointed to act on an Advisory Committee as representing Schools for the Deaf, by Mr. Howard J. Rogers, Director of the Department of Education and Social Economy in the American exhibit at the Paris Exposition of 1900, I have been in personal communication with Mr. Rogers in regard to an exhibit of Schools for the Deaf.

Mr. Rogers assures me that such exhibit, if prepared, will be given space in the Educational Building, and he is very desirous that the work of educating the deaf in America, which has been so successful, shall be well brought to public notice at Paris in 1900.

He therefore authorizes me to invite all Schools for the Deaf to furnish copies of reports, laws, regulations, text-books, programs of study, apparatus and appliances for instruction, photographs of buildings (giving exterior and interior views with groups of teachers and pupils), specimens of pupil's work, whether literary, scientific, mechanical, or artistic, and also statistical charts, diagrams, and tables.

Mr. Rogers desires that photographs should be 8 x 10 inches, or 11 x 14 inches in size, *unmounted*, with the title plainly, but lightly written on the back *in pencil*. He will arrange to have all photographs mounted in uniform style.

It is desired that all material to be exhibited should be in Mr. Rogers' hands before the first of September next. His address is, with the title given above, Albany, New York.

Superintendents and Principals are advised to communicate with Mr. Rogers at an early day, informing him of their purpose to furnish exhibits, and seeking such additional information as may be required.

It is not expected nor desired that exhibits occupying considerable space, such as were presented by some schools in 1893 at Chicago, shall be offered, for the room available for the entire American educational exhibit will be small compared with that afforded at Chicago; but it is hoped that every school will contribute something.

Very truly yours,

E. M. GALLAUDET,
Of the Advisory Committee, etc.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Cleveland Day-School.—Miss Ellen Taylor, a graduate of the training-class of the McCowen Oral School, and Miss Minnie E. Morris, B. A., a graduate of Gallaudet College, have been appointed teachers. Miss Taylor has charge of an oral kindergarten class, and Miss Morris is to teach both manually and orally.

Colorado School.—Mr. D. C. Dudley has been compelled, by continued ill health, to retire from the superintendency, and Mr. W. K. Argo, for the past five years head teacher of the School and formerly Superintendent of the Kentucky School, has been appointed as his successor. Mr. Dudley, before

coming to Colorado, was first a teacher in the North Carolina Institution and then Superintendent of the Kentucky School. He was Superintendent of the Colorado School from 1884 to 1887, when, on account of his ill health, he was compelled to resign. After a year's rest he was able to return to the service of the School as a teacher, and, on the retirement of Mr. Ray in 1894, he was again elected Superintendent. His ability and his earnest devotion to the work have given him a prominent place in the profession, and we join with his successor in the hope that he may yet recover his old-time vigor and long be spared to engage in the work.

Dayton Day-School.—A day-school was opened in Dayton, Ohio, under the new State law, January 3, 1899. The teacher is Miss Jessie F. Zearing, formerly of the Kansas School. There are six pupils. Those who have previously been taught by the manual method are still so taught, while with beginners and those who have been taught speech the oral method is used.

Kansas School.—Mr. Henry C. Hammond, formerly a teacher in the Illinois, Indiana, and Nebraska Institutions, and Superintendent of the Arkansas, Iowa, Chicago, and Kansas Schools, has been re-elected to the superintendency of this School, from which he was removed two years ago for political reasons. We are glad to welcome Mr. Hammond back to the profession, and we are sorry to lose from it Mr. Stewart, who has now acquired the experience needed for his position and has shown himself an able and efficient officer.

Los Angeles Day-School.—We were unable to obtain the names of the teachers of this School for the Tabular Statement in the last January *Annals*. They are Miss Mary Bennett and Miss Helen C. Taylor, both graduates of the training-class of the McCowen Oral School.

Mississippi Institution.—The Second Reunion of the Mississippi Association of the Deaf was held at the Institution December 23 to 26, 1898. An interesting feature of the meeting was the dedication on Christmas Day of a granite monument to the late Lawrence W. Saunders, presented by the deaf people of the State and erected in the city cemetery of Jack-

son. Addresses were made at the dedication by Bishop Galloway and Mr. Charles L. Deem.

North Carolina (Raleigh) Institution.—Mr. Andrew J. Sullivan, B. A., a graduate of the Pennsylvania Institution and of Gallaudet College, has been added to the corps of instruction.

North Dakota School.—The legislature, for the first time, has recognized the needs of this School and provided for them in a liberal manner. Thirty thousand dollars have been appropriated for current expenses, and seventeen thousand for improvements. This will enable the School to employ two additional teachers and give the educational department a good equipment. The building will be completed, steam-heat and sewerage will be put in, a separate building erected for a hospital, and the present building put in thorough repair.

Texas School.—The new Superintendent, Mr. B. F. McNulty, entered upon his duties in February. He has reappointed Mr. Blattner as Principal for the rest of the school year.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The Kindergarten Section of the Convention.—In the list of officers printed in the Report of the Fifteenth Meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, soon to be issued, the members of the Kindergarten Section were not received in time to be given in full. They are Miss Mary McCowan, chairman; Miss Margaret McGill, Miss Edith Fulton, and Miss Kate A. Strouse.

Conference of the British Association.—A Conference of the British National Association of Teachers of the Deaf is to be held at the Royal Institution, Derby, England, of which Dr. W. R. Roe is head-master, August 2 to 4, 1899, under the presidency of Lord Egerton of Tatton. No papers or discussions as to the relative merits of methods of instruction will be allowed, and no demonstrations of pupils will be held during

the sittings of the Conference. A hearty invitation to attend the Conference is given to American teachers.

Convention of the Deaf.—The Sixth Convention of the American National Association of the Deaf will be held at St. Paul, Minnesota, July 11–14, 1899. The Rev. J. M. Koehler, President, 4625 Whittier st., Germantown, Pa., is chairman of the special committee in charge of the business program. Mr. A. R. Spear, 653 Dayton st., St. Paul, Minn., is chairman of the Local Committee of Arrangements. The Minnesota Association for the Advancement of the Deaf, through its president, Mr. Jay Cooke Howard, of Duluth, extends a cordial welcome to the State and pledges assistance in making the Convention a success.

The Speech Association.—At a meeting of the Board of Directors of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, held at Washington, March 10, 1899, the following officers were elected: Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, President; Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, First Vice-President; Miss Caroline A. Yale, Second Vice-President; Dr. Z. F. Westervelt, Secretary; Mr. F. W. Booth, Treasurer.

It was decided to hold a Summer Meeting of the Association during the latter part of June in Northampton, Massachusetts. Resolutions of regret and sympathy on account of the illness of Dr. Gillett, late President of the Association, were adopted.

The Arnold Library.—The British National Association of Teachers of the Deaf has purchased the books and pamphlets relating to the deaf in the library of the late Rev. Thomas Arnold, and have made it the nucleus of a collection to be called "The Arnold Library." They hope to obtain a collection of English and foreign books relating to the deaf which shall be a permanent memorial of their regard for Mr. Arnold worthy of the Association, and of practical value to teachers. A good many of the books may be borrowed by any member of the Association who will pay the necessary postage both ways: a catalogue recently published states in connection with each book the amount of postage required. We hope

the heads of all American Schools for the Deaf will promote the growth of this library and show their fraternal good-will by placing it on their mailing lists for their annual reports and other publications. The Hon. Librarian, to whom all communications should be addressed, is C. Patterson, Esq.; 584, Chester Road, Old Trafford, Manchester, England.

Publications.—We have received the following publications, some of which we hope to notice more fully in a future number of the *Annals*:

BANGS, DWIGHT F. Outlines in American History, with Supplements. 8vo. [The "Outlines" are apparently leaflets printed for daily use in the school-room and afterwards bound with the "Supplements" to form a book. The "Outlines" cover the whole period of American history from the aboriginal period to the end of Harrison's administration, and include in simple language all the more important events, with their dates: the "Supplements," affording additional information, extend only through the period of the Revolution, the aim being to encourage individual research for the periods of later administration. The book has stood the test of practical use in a school for the deaf and has given satisfactory results.]

BELL, ALEXANDER MELVILLE. On the Use of Notations in Elocutionary Teaching. Washington, D. C.: The Volta Bureau. 1899. 12mo, pp. 23. [Valuable for articulation teachers of the deaf, though intended especially for elocution teachers of hearing persons.]

FERRERI, G. La Beneficenza e i Sordomuti [Beneficence and the Deaf]. Firenze: 1898. 8vo, pp. 84. [A plea for a more generous support of Italian schools. The author expresses a decided preference for residential schools over day-schools. A table included in the pamphlet names 46 schools in Italy with 2,299 pupils, of whom 1,102 are male and 1,197 female.]

— Norme Elementari per l'Educazione dei Sordomuti, ad Uso degli Alunni ed Alunne delle Scuole Normali del Regno e delle Diretrici e Maestre dei Giardini d'Infanzia [Elementary Rules for the Education of the Deaf, for the Use of Pupils in Normal Schools and of Kindergartners]. Siena: 1898. 12mo, pp. 47.

— La Facoltà Uditiva nei Sordomuti. Osservazioni e Note sul Sistema Auricolare nelle Scuole dei Sordomuti [The Hearing Faculty in Deaf-Mutes. Observations and Notes upon the Auricular Method in Schools for the Deaf]. Firenze: 1899. 12mo, pp. 64. [Mr. Ferreri recently visited the schools for the deaf in Vienna to investigate the methods and results of the auricular instruction introduced by Dr. Urbantschitsch, of which so much has been said within the past few years. He found to his surprise that the method had been entirely

abandoned in the Döbling and Imperial Institutions, and was now practised only for a half an hour daily with three or four pupils of each class in the Hebrew Institution. He also visited Munich and observed the method as there practised by Dr. Bezold. He regards the results obtained in either place as in no respect superior to those of the ordinary Oral method.]

FORNARI, P. *Lo Stato Mentale del Sordomuto* [The Mental State of the Deaf-Mute]. Alessandria: 1898. 8vo, pp. 32.

GALLAUDET, EDWARD M. *Message aux Conseils d'Administration des Écoles de Sourds-Muets et à tous ceux qui s'intéressent aux progrès de l'éducation des sourds-muets en Europe*. Préface de Henri Gaillard, Directeur du *Journal des Sourds-Muets* [A Message to the Boards of Management of Schools for the Deaf, and to all interested in promoting the education of the deaf in Europe. With a Preface by Henri Gaillard, Editor of the *Journal des Sourds-Muets*]. Paris: 1898. 4to, pp. 19. [The original of this translation may be found in the *Annals*, vol. xlii, pp. 273-281. It has been published separately in English, German, French, and Italian—in Germany and France by voluntary subscriptions of the adult deaf in those countries.]

GOLDSTEIN, M. A., M. D. *Advanced Method in Teaching the Deaf*. St. Louis, Mo.: 1897. 8vo, pp. 11. [A description and advocacy of the Auricular method of Dr. Urbantschitsch of Vienna. The author has introduced the method into the St. Joseph's School in St. Louis with satisfactory results in some cases.]

HEIDSIEK, J. *Hearing Deaf-Mutes. A Contribution toward the Elucidation of the Question of Methods*. Translated from the German by George W. Veditz, M. A. Washington, D. C.: 1898. 8vo, pp. 52. [Reprinted from the *Annals* for April, June, and September, 1898.]

— *Das Taubstummenbildungswesen in den Vereinigten Staaten Nordamerikas. Ein Reisebericht und weiterer Beitrag zur Systemfrage* [The Education of the Deaf in the United States. Report of a Visit, and a Further Contribution to the Question of Methods]. Breslau: 1898. 8vo, pp. 82. [Mr. Heidsiek came to this country as an honest seeker after truth, and states candidly the results of his observations and the conclusions to which they led him. A translation is begun in the present number of the *Annals*.]

KEIPER, GEO. F., A. M., M. D. *Etiology and Prevention of Deafness*. Lafayette, Ind.: 1893. 32mo, pp. 8. [A table is given of the ages when deafness occurred of 4,102 persons and the causes of deafness of 9,897 persons, compiled from the reports of 19 American Schools for the Deaf.]

LYON, Mr. and Mrs. EDMUND. *Report on the Deaf for 1897, to the New York State Board of Charities*. 8vo, pp. 77. [This Report contains a large amount of statistical and other information concerning the several schools for the deaf in New York, and a copy of the examination paper by which the pupils of all the schools were tested in 1897.]

SCHNEIDER, Dr. K., and PETERSILIE, Dr. A. *Preussische Statistik*.

Das gesammte niedere Schulwesen im preussischen Staate im Jahre 1896. I Theil. Die öffentlichen Volks- und Mittelschulen, die Privatschulen und sonstigen niederen Unterrichtsanstalten im Staate, in den Provinzen und Regierungsbezirken. Im Auftrage des Herrn Ministers der geistlichen, Unterrichts- und Medizinal-Angelegenheiten bearbeitet vom Königlichen statistischen Bureau. Mit einer einleitenden Denkschrift [Statistics of all the Lower Schools of Prussia for the year 1896. Part I. Public People's and Middle Schools, Private Schools, and other lower Educational Institutions in the State, Provinces, and Government Districts. Prepared by the Royal Statistical Bureau by direction of the Minister of Spiritual, Educational, and Medicinal Affairs. With an Introduction]. Berlin, 1898. Large 4to, pp. 674. [Dr. Schneider and Dr. Petersilie are the authors of the Introduction. They devote pages 188-204 to the education of the deaf, giving a brief general history and describing more at length its development in Prussia. They condemn the protests against the exclusive use of the Oral method made by the adult deaf of Germany within recent years, and speak of "the so-called Combined System" as one "in which both methods are united and nothing is accomplished in either." They say that "a movement in favor of the sign-language incited from abroad in 1897 has given the Minister of Instruction occasion to recognize anew the high value of speech and to decline the proposal to risk its impairment."]

ScURI, E. Il Metronomo nell' Insegnamento Orale dei Sordomuti, ossia Teorica e Pratica per l'esercizio metodico degli organi della parola secondo principi scientifici [The Metronome in the Oral Instruction of the Deaf, or Theory and Practice for the Methodical Exercise of the Organs of Speech according to Scientific Principles]. Naples: 1898. 8vo, pp. 164. [Mr. Scuri maintains that the sense of rhythm awakened and cultivated by the use of the metronome is of great value in promoting good breathing and in attaining a clear, easy, and agreeable articulation. "Who breathes well, speaks well," is his motto.]

TERRY, HOWARD L. A Tale of Normandie, and Other Poems. Illustrated. St. Louis: 1898. 12mo, pp. 130. [The author is deaf. He was a student of Gallaudet College for a year or two, and some of the verses relate to his college life.]

REPORTS OF SCHOOLS: (published in 1897) St. Joseph's (New York), South Australian: (published in 1898) Arkansas, Bristol (England), Buenos Aires (Argentine Republic), Clarke, Columbia, Genoa (Italy), Georgia, Groningen (Netherlands), Indiana, Iowa, Jews' (London, England), Liverpool (England), Manchester (England), Nebraska, New South Wales, New York, North Carolina (Raleigh), North Dakota, Northern New York, Ontario, Oral Association (London, England), Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania Home, Rotterdam (Netherlands), St. Joseph's (New York), Venersborg (Sweden), Western Pennsylvania, Wisconsin: (published in 1899) California, Montreal Male Catholic, North Carolina (Morganton), Washington.

OTHER REPORTS, 1898: Fifth Triennial Convention of Illinois Gallaudet Union; College of Teachers (Great Britain); National Association of Teachers (Great Britain); Committee of Council on Education (Great Britain); New York Church Mission; South Australian Adult Mission.

Foreign Periodicals. The *Annales Françaises des Sourds-muets*, begun last year by Mr. G. Bertoux, has suspended publication, leaving France again without any periodical devoted to the education of the deaf. To supply the need Mr. Henri Gaillard, Editor of the *Journal des Sourds-Muets*, began in February the publication of a monthly periodical entitled *Revue Pédagogique de l'Enseignement des Sourds-Muets*. The price for foreign countries is 8 francs, or, with the *Journal des Sourds-Muets*, 10 francs a year. The address is 21, Rue de la Tombe-Issoire, Paris, France.

The *Tidskrift för Döfstumskolan*, which for nineteen years has been published by the Swedish teachers, is succeeded by the *Nordisk Tidskrift för Döfstumskolan*, an organ of the teachers of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. The editor-in-chief is Mr. Fredrik Nordin, of Venersborg, Sweden, formerly editor of the Swedish *Tidskrift*, while each of the other countries has an associate editor—Mr. Hjalmar Keller, of Nyberg, for Denmark, and Mr. I. A. Fjörtoft, of Christiania, for Norway. Some of the articles are printed in Swedish, some in Norwegian, and others in Danish, but, as these languages are nearly related, all may be read without difficulty in each of the three countries. The price is 3 kroner a year.

The Language of the Deaf-Blind.—The *West Virginia Tablet* some time ago quoted from a report of the Perkins Institution, at South Boston, a composition by Edith Thomas, a deaf-blind girl in the Perkins Institution, and said:

It would be a good thing if some of our teachers of the deaf would go to the Boston School for the Blind and take lessons in the art of imparting a knowledge of language. Certain it is that in none of our schools for the deaf has any such success been achieved as in the case of these little deaf, dumb, and blind children who are being educated at the Perkins Institute. We give below the story of a violet, written by Edith Thomas, who is represented as not being especially bright, and who, we think, has only been under instruction three or four years. If this is an absolutely original and uncorrected composition, it shows a wonderful mastery, not only of idiomatic, but poetic English, for one in her handicapped condition, and whose mental development has been limited

to so brief a period. It would indicate a marvellous triumph of mind over matter. How can this phenomenal success be accounted for? We have no reason to charge the authorities of this school with disingenuousness in the matter, and we should like to see some plausible solution of the problem.

The editor of the *Annals* has had the pleasure of meeting and conversing with Edith Thomas, and from the readiness and correctness with which she uses language, as well as from the character of the Director of the Perkins Institution, he has no doubt the story quoted was entirely her own composition. But the *Tablet* was in error in supposing she had "only been under instruction three or four years." She was admitted to the Kindergarten for the Blind, at Jamaica Plain, in October, 1887, and, with her special teacher, was transferred to the school at South Boston in February, 1890. The story quoted was written in April, 1895. She had consequently been under instruction seven years and a half, and during nearly all this period she had had the advantage of special teachers, who devoted their whole time to her education. Moreover, she is not congenitally deaf or blind, but lost her sight and hearing from scarlet fever and diphtheria at four years of age. These facts, which have all been candidly stated in the annual reports of the Perkins Institution, show that while Edith's education has been wisely and skilfully conducted, the results are not greater than might have been expected.

The achievements in language of Helen Keller and of Elizabeth Robin, who lost sight and hearing at the ages of nineteen and eighteen months, respectively, are more remarkable, when compared with those of merely deaf children who have been under instruction for the same length of time. But although at first it seems as if their blindness must be a hindrance to them in the acquisition of language, in reality it is not so, but is rather a help and advantage. Nearly all the impressions that are made upon their minds—the impressions that to the seeing deaf come through the sense of sight without any association with words—come to them solely through the medium of language. That is the great advantage the deaf-blind have over merely deaf children in acquiring language: but Helen Keller and Elizabeth Robin, especially Helen, are also un-

usually bright; and they have the further advantage over the children in our schools for the deaf that their teachers devote their whole time to them individually, instead of dividing it among a class of pupils of various capacities.

If the teachers of our schools for the deaf should visit the kindergarten at Jamaica Plain and the school at South Boston, as suggested by the *Tablet*, they would be delighted with the skill, enthusiasm, and devotion of the teachers of the deaf-blind children there, and we hope they would be so impressed with the importance of constant practice in the English language, as the only means of acquiring it thoroughly, that thenceforth they would use it unremittingly with their own pupils. But if they should expect that the same skill, enthusiasm, and devotion, the same persistent use of English in teaching, and even the same advantages of individual instruction, would produce the same results in language with their pupils, we fear they would be doomed to disappointment; for we do not believe that merely deaf children, receiving, as they do, the most vivid impressions through the sense of sight, without the intermediary of words, could ever be brought so completely under the spell of language as these deaf-blind children are.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

AN experienced male teacher is wanted in a State School for the Deaf. Address, stating experience and giving reference, "Superintendent," care of the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

A hearing young lady, highly educated, using and reading manual spelling fluently from childhood, and well equipped otherwise for the work of teaching the deaf, desires a position. Highest references. Address E. P., care of the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

A lady having taught Articulation for a number of years, desires a position. Best of references given. Address E. H., Box 230, Summit, N. J.

Mr. J. Heidsiek's "Hearing Deaf-Mutes. A Contribution toward the Elucidation of the Question of Methods," translated from the German by George W. Veditz, M. A., and published in the *Annals* for April, June, and September of last year, has been reprinted in pamphlet form. Copies may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at 25 cents each, postage included.

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MUST THE SIGN-LANGUAGE GO ?

Language should be subordinate to thought, not thought to language.
—*Henry Drummond.*

ONE evening last March I sat among the students of the College and enjoyed with them a lecture, by one of my colleagues, on "Man's First Steps Towards Civilization." This lecture was one of a course given during the winter by the members of the College faculty, in turn, on subjects naturally suggested by the line of work followed by each professor in his teaching. These courses have been given to our students for twenty years and the subjects of a few of them will furnish an idea of the wide range of thought thus presented: The Indo-European Family of Languages; Oxygen and Certain Oxygen Compounds; The Monroe Doctrine and the Panama Canal; The Ocean Tides; Student Life in Ancient Athens; What I Saw in Alaska; The Disputed Ownership of Alsace and Lorraine.

All the lectures in these courses have been delivered in the language of signs, with very little manual spelling, and but few words written on the black-board. What I know of the giving of lectures to the deaf through the use of the manual alphabet alone, or speech and lip-reading, leads me to express the opinion that these lectures could not have been enjoyed by assemblages of deaf per-

sons through either of these means with one-half the pleasure and profit with which our students enjoyed them through the language of signs.

Many years ago, in the early days of the College, that master of the sign-language, Rev. Wm. W. Turner, Instructor and Principal of the American School for the Deaf at Hartford, gave several lectures to our students on Natural Science. In closing the course he took an evening to describe the life-work of the great botanist Linnæus. This description stands out clear and sharp in my memory as a masterpiece of sign-making. I do not think any lecture which has reached my mind through the ear has charmed or interested me more than this.

I believe I enjoy lectures given in signs as keenly and understand them as completely as any deaf person can. I feel that my familiarity with the spontaneous language of the deaf from my earliest childhood makes it possible for me to appreciate what lectures in signs are to the deaf, as few are able to do who have learned the language of signs in adult life, and certainly as those cannot who have no knowledge of that language.

I hope it is not assuming too much for me to say that my long-continued relation to the deaf of instructor to pupil has opened my mind, as fully as that of any instructor could be, to the possibility of injurious effects resulting from the use of signs in the effort to give the deaf a command of verbal language. As long ago as 1868, in a paper read before the First Conference of Principals, I called attention to an evil which I felt was then existing in many of our schools, namely, the excessive use of signs in the schoolroom, and urged that manual spelling should be brought largely into use at as early a stage as possible, with a view of securing frequent practice in verbal language on the part of the pupil. Two years later, in 1870, at the Indianapolis Convention, I spoke of the sign-language as a "dangerous thing" in the educa-

tion of the deaf, and urged that it ought to be used "as little as possible." In the efforts which have been made lately to abolish the use of the sign-language altogether in schools for the deaf, these declarations of mine have been quoted to give the impression that I supported this extreme policy. That this does me great injustice will be easily seen by any one who will take the pains to refer to the proceedings of those meetings.

I have always believed, with Hill and other leading German teachers, and with my father, the Doctors Peet, Dr. Noyes, Dr. MacIntire, Mr. Stone, and a host of other American teachers of eminence and success, that the language of signs has its uses at all points in the education of the deaf. It is because this conviction is so strong that I have noticed with sincere regret that some for whom I have a high regard have lately been disposed to do away altogether with the language of signs. That such a result, if it could be accomplished, would produce more harm than good I will attempt to show.

The exclusion of signs from schools for the deaf, if I mistake not, is urged on two grounds and no others. *First*, because their use is thought to interfere with the acquisition, on the part of the pupil, of the power to comprehend verbal language and to use it with a reasonable degree of correctness. *Secondly*, because their use is believed to stand in the way of the development in the pupil of the power of speech and the ability to read the speech of others.

That the excessive and injudicious employment of signs is open to these objections is what I have admitted and urged for twenty years and more. Is there no way of preventing this but by total exclusion? To answer this question in the negative would be equivalent to saying that teachers of the deaf, generally, have so little intelligence and judgment and are so lacking in self-control that they cannot be trusted with a means of instruction

commended as indispensable by such teachers as Reich, the son-in-law and successor of Heinicke, Wagner, Saegert, Gronewald, and Hill, in Germany, because they may possibly abuse it. Would it be reasonable to say that no surgeon should be allowed to use a knife because death has sometimes followed the careless use of that instrument?

But he who would banish signs altogether will naturally demand to be told in what ways signs are useful. Before responding to this I would like to say that I have visited recently three prominent schools for the deaf in this country in which it is declared that signs are not used. In each of these I saw signs used in the classroom, good, clear, forceful "De l'Epée signs." I have never had the pleasure of visiting the Rochester School, but I have the authority of a German teacher of eminence who was at this school last June, and who was, evidently at great pains, particularly informed as to the methods pursued, for saying that in the Rochester School "unrestricted use of natural gestures at all stages of the course of instruction" is allowed. (See the *Annals* for April, 1899, page 202.) I do not speak of these things with any purpose of reflecting on the sincerity or consistency of the managers of the schools referred to, but only to show that the German teachers I have just named, whom some might be disposed to speak of as belonging to a past age, would find, could they shuffle on their mortal coils and step into our schools to-day, ample justification for their claim that signs were indispensable in the education of the deaf.

But I was going to try to show, not that signs are necessary and inevitable, but that they are useful. I think the sentiment quoted from Henry Drummond at the head of this article is worthy of serious consideration by teachers of the deaf. The youngest instructor has had it impressed upon him most vigorously and persistently that his greatest work, from a pedagogic point of view, is

to teach his pupils language. I do not think Drummond's declaration, the justice of which cannot be questioned, that "language should be subordinate to thought, not thought to language," has been so often urged. As a means of developing and stimulating thought, and of explaining the meaning of words and phrases new to a pupil, signs often serve a purpose that nothing else can.

I will ask the reader to observe that I say "often," and not "always," for I am quite ready to admit that in some cases finger-spelled or spoken words, the meaning of which is fully understood, may serve the purpose above indicated. When the teacher can be *sure* that they will, no one would be more ready than I to commend their use. But I am equally certain that in instances almost beyond number the worthy zeal of a teacher to be loyal to a "method" or a "theory" leads to a persistence in the effort to "build language upon language," to "explain words by words," that is barren of good results. The bewildered and wearied pupil declares he understands when he does not, and the teacher is often too tired to apply further tests.

I saw in one of the leading so-called pure oral schools of Germany, in 1897, an exercise that surprised and pleased me. A class of young pupils was being taught a number of new words. Each pupil was required to write, speak, and make the sign for each word. I asked why the sign was demanded, and was told that it was to make sure the child understood the meaning of the word, ample evidence having been had in that school that, when no sign was asked for, the word was to the pupil often nothing more than a meaningless utterance.

Teachers in schools where signs are not allowed in the classroom have told me that they have repeatedly found themselves unable to explain the meaning of a word or phrase, which could readily have been made clear by the use of signs. This not only involves a series of distinct

losses to the pupils, but it forms a habit of not understanding, which is injurious.

Serious as is the disadvantage of the complete abolition of signs from the classroom, an equally great, if not greater, deprivation, in my judgment, is imposed on the deaf by the giving up of the assemblage of the pupils in chapel or lecture-room for the purpose of religious instruction and devotion, and for entertaining and profitable lectures *in the sign-language*. Perhaps some reader may say, "No doubt the lectures given to your college students are all very well, but such things go over the heads of children." My reply is that in our Kendall School we have for years had courses of lectures suited to the capacity of the children, and these have been eagerly attended by them, and have been a great source of profit and pleasure.

I remember, as though it were yesterday, my first attempt to address a company of deaf persons. It was when I was a teacher in the Hartford School, a youth of nineteen, and my subject was Joan of Arc. My heart thumped and my knees shook as I began, but the interested, eager faces of the children gave me courage, and I succeeded in holding their attention for an hour. I cannot believe that the entertainment and instruction afforded by that lecture could have been imparted to as large a proportion of the two hundred present by means of the manual alphabet or speech as was given by signs, even though the children had been all good readers of finger-spelling or lip-movement.

I hope every reader of the *Annals* has read, or will read, Mr. J. L. Smith's article in the April number for this year on "The Question of Chapel Services in Schools for the Deaf." Mr. Smith has said much I had in mind to say when I thought of writing this article soon after seeing the lecture alluded to at the beginning. He writes as one who knows, and I am sure his views will be sustained by great numbers of highly educated deaf persons who have

enjoyed the advantage of seeing chapel services and lectures from real masters of the sign-language.

But I am loath to continue to undue length the discussion of a subject some may think too well worn already. The pages of the *Annals* are full of the experiences and opinions of leaders in our profession on the uses and abuses of "signs," as one will readily see by consulting the Index. In this it will be found that the use of signs is approved in varying degree and manner by such authorities as Arnold of England, Marchio of Italy, Walther of Germany, and Greene and Gordon of our own country. The testimony of the last named is so pointed and so in accord with my own views that I shall ask the Editor to allow me to make a brief quotation from an article originally prepared for and read to the "parents' class" in Professor Alexander Graham Bell's Experimental School in Washington in 1885, and printed in the *Annals* for October in that year. Dr. Gordon says (*Annals*, xxx, 243):

In my opinion, the sign-language, in the hands of its masters, is an invaluable means of instruction. By it the skilful teacher annihilates obstacles of time and space, and history becomes a living panorama, every quarter of the globe is transported to his school-room and becomes a present reality to his pupils, the stories so delightful to infancy become a part of their heritage, and the long line of Bible stories, with their sublime lessons, is woven in fadeless colors into their very being. To arouse dormant powers, to convey facts, to interpret relations, to stimulate the imagination, to appeal to the emotions, to regulate the passions, I know of no satisfactory substitute for the gesture-language; and thrice fortunate do I count those deaf children whose youthful minds are developed under the inspiration of the able master whose hands pluck the stars from their courses, who brings the rolling sea to his feet, whose arms become trees, and in whose fingers the budding flowers burst into bloom.

I trust the generous reader will not attribute an allusion to my father's opinions as due merely to filial partiality. For I think it is matter of settled history that, as a successful teacher of the deaf, he stands among the foremost. A large proportion of his pupils acquired that

facility in verbal English which is the desideratum and has often been the despair of later instructors.

In the first volume of the *Annals* will be found an article by my father on "The Natural Language of Signs," which is worth, I think, the reading of the progressive teacher of to-day. In this article (page 90) he makes bold to claim that, "so far as motions or actions addressed to the senses are concerned, this language, in its improved state, is superior in accuracy and force of delineation to that in which words spelt on the fingers, spoken, written, or printed, are employed." This claim of the superior accuracy and precision of sign-language, as compared with words, may, perhaps, excite surprise at first thought. But it is believed that its reasonableness will appear when it is remembered that the meanings attached to words are almost wholly arbitrary, very few giving the slightest hint to their signification in their shape or sound, while nearly every gesture used in sign-language carries with it a plain suggestion of its meaning, and in very many instances gives a vivid and easily recognized portrayal of the idea to be conveyed.

I believe I have said enough to establish the claim that through the use of signs the education of deaf children may be helped forward in many ways, that their mental development may be stimulated, and that useful and entertaining ideas and suggestions may be communicated in the form of lectures. I hope I have convinced most of my readers that every school which banishes the sign-language from its classrooms and chapel robs its pupils of a valuable means of education, thought development and stimulation, for which there are no adequate compensations in increased power to use and understand verbal language or speech. I say *adequate* compensations, for even if it were proved, which it has not been to my knowledge, that the abolition of signs has secured a somewhat improved average standard of verbal accuracy and

oral fluency, I have yet to be shown that this gain has not been purchased at a price out of all proportion to its value. My observations in American and European schools where signs are used with moderation and good judgment have satisfied me that in such schools the best "all-round" development of the pupils is secured. So, in answering finally the question presented in the title to this article, I should urge that if there ever was a problem for the solution of which the adoption of the golden mean, rather than either extreme, might be urged, the sign problem should be so solved. Shall men abolish free government and re-enthroned despotism because liberty may run into license? Shall Christians embrace atheism because religion may grow into fanaticism? Shall we all dismiss our doctors and call in the medicine-men of the aborigines because the practice of physic may be perverted to charlatanism and quackery?

EDWARD M. GALLAUDET,
President of Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS.

BEGINNING in the April number of the *Annals* of last year, and extending through the September issue, is an article entitled "Hearing Deaf-Mutes." This is a translation from Mr. J. Heidsiek's book, of the same title, which was published about two years ago in Germany. Having spent a year in that country for the sole purpose of studying the German method of teaching speech to the deaf, and having remained in the several schools longer than visitors do as a rule, in justice to the schools of that country and to correct some statements which might be misleading in this, I wish to present some facts as they impressed me.

Two other books by the same author, "The Deaf-Mute and His Language" and "The Deaf-Mute's Cry for Help," brought out a number of articles in the professional papers by such men as Schulrat Walther, Director of the Royal Institute at Berlin, and Oberlehrer Vatter, Head of the school at Frankfort-on-the-Main, a long discussion continuing through eight numbers of the *Organ der Taubstummen-Anstalten in Deutschland*, and a number of shorter articles. The agitation in the societies for the deaf, and a petition circulated by them asking for a change in the method of instruction, brought about a thorough inspection of methods, of results, of ways and means of attaining them—in short, of all the charges. The result was a report from the Department of Education declaring the charges unfounded and the method employed the best known for educating the deaf.

At that time there was published in a Breslau morning paper by the corps of instruction of the Breslau School for the Deaf, of which Mr. J. Heidsiek is a member, the following statement:

The method recommended by the teacher of the deaf, Heidsiek, is in no sense new, but long ago was used in the German schools and was uniformly cast out because it did not accomplish its purpose of fitting the deaf for communication with their hearing and speaking surroundings.

The method since then used in the schools, the so-called German method, for the improvement and perfection of which we are constantly laboring, has not only received the approval of the parents, but was voted as the one best suited for the education of the deaf at the International Congresses of Milan and Brussels and its introduction into the schools recommended.

We further declare that the charges of cruelty and unhappiness made by him have not the slightest connection with the method of instruction, and must be placed at the door of the teacher who lays himself open to such charges.

(Signed) Corps of Instruction of the Breslau School for the Deaf, Bergmann, Director.

Methods of instruction, whether for the hearing or the deaf, are not created by law, nor are they banished by law. They are the growth of years; years of patient

study, painstaking experiment, close observation. A method may originate with one person, attract the attention of others, be improved and perfected through the course of years, and only when it has been found able to withstand the test of time and to be possessed of the best qualities for the requirements of the educators does a State or Government say, "Teach by this method." It is thus with the German method of teaching the deaf. It has grown, been handed down, altered, improved, from Heinicke, through Eschke and Reich, Hill and Arnold, to its present staunch supporters, Walther and Vatter. If it continues, it must be by its own superior worth; if it falls, it will be because it has been proved insufficient. No petitions to the Emperor, started by agitation in the societies, will accomplish a change of method. These may result in an examination, but that is the uttermost they can do. More than a century has passed since Heinicke first taught the deaf speech. In that time it has surely had ample trial. There have been many changes in the period; the system has undergone many tests; it has emerged triumphantly from them all, and has performed and is performing all that can be required morally and socially, by church or by state.

We read (*Annals* for September, 1898, page 286): "In practice, aims are set and tasks attempted which are irreconcilable with the higher object." In the preceding paragraph this object is defined: "To provide the deaf with such mental and moral training as will enable them to become useful members of the State, the community, and the church."

When a class, after eight years' training, can go to the church and be questioned by the pastor on the confession of faith and the catechism, and answer intelligently by intelligible speech, certainly the church ought to be satisfied that her part of the training is looked after as well as may be. I was present in the church at the graduating

exercises both in Berlin and Frankfort. The poorhouses and aid-societies show almost no percentage of deaf receiving help, which proves that they are self-supporting. Statistics show a remarkable freedom from criminality among the deaf. They are, then, no detriment to the welfare of the state.

On page 293 we find : " Every year hundreds of pupils leave our institutions, who, during their seven or eight years of school, have led a dream life, who, in fact, have never come to any mental awakening, and who consequently must suffer all their life from intellectual marasmus. These pitiable beings, who can express themselves neither by word of mouth nor writing, who cannot comprehend the simplest items in the daily papers, have been sacrificed to a false method." If a child who has been taught to express himself in written language for seven or eight years, beginning the first week he entered school, is not able to make himself understood at the end of that time, the trouble lies deeper than in the way of teaching. They do not do more than about one-third as much writing in the German schools as we do, but their home work is nearly all in writing, and home work begins in the second year and continues through the course. In the sixth-year class I have often heard such work, covering one side or more of a slate, read. It was a reproduction of subjects discussed in the class the day before. A few would be perfect ; the greater number would have four or five mistakes. The teachers in training observe a week at a time in a class in the Berlin Institute, returning after eight weeks for another week. There are three observation classes, so that every teacher has observers for three weeks, and then is alone with his class for five weeks. It seemed to me that they used very good written language in the German schools.

Speaking of the use of signs, Mr. Heidsiek says (page 303) : " Only in one school did I find an exception, and

here [the pupils made a heartrending impression upon me, for they neither made signs nor spoke, but sat there in silence.]

The exception spoken of here, Mr. Vatter told me, is his school. I visited this school for a month, and was with the children at all times of the day. They would say to me, "Will you come to play with us this evening?" "We have a holiday to-morrow. Are you going with us?" I attended the excursions both to the Botanical and Zoological gardens. I saw only happy children. I wish to say here, with all possible emphasis, that in no school did the children appear depressed or fearful or unhappy.

There appears to me a misleading statement in the following quotation (page 298), misleading at least to one not well acquainted with the claims of the German method:

"I have never met a *bona-fide* deaf person who was able to follow and successfully take part in the general conversation of hearing people." One would be led to believe the German schools promised to make conversationalists out of deaf children. The highest aspirations of the German instructors whom I had the pleasure of meeting did not reach such a height. They claim that all the deaf can be taught speech and lip-reading, sufficient to carry on a conversation, within the limits of an eight years' course, and to get on in the home and with a master without the use of signs, and that the less signs are used in their education the better will be their speech.

The difference in mental attainments between this country and Germany found in parallel years' work is, I believe, not so much the difference in the method of instruction as in the material presented by the teacher. This brings very forcibly to mind a discussion with the fifth-year teacher in the Berlin Institute about teaching the explanations of notation in arithmetic. When working an example in addition, the pupil was required to

explain each step. The question, "What good will this do him when he is grown up?" and the remark, "He could learn something of more use to him in that time," were answered, "He must know why he does this, and if we teach as they teach in the public schools, we must teach it." To me accuracy and rapidity without the how is all that is necessary. When after five weeks I came to the same class the work was still explanations in addition. We often read in reports in this country that the oral classes have equal mental attainments with those manually taught.

There is a class of well-educated deaf people in Germany who have had means to carry on their education beyond the State schools. These people can take a considerable part in a general conversation and they associate almost entirely with hearing people. They do not attend the societies, do not use signs, and if signed to by others will say, "Please talk to me."

It has been the custom when oralism attained a marked success to describe it as "the exception to the rule." Even when this success is attained by a large percentage of a whole school, excuses are found. A German teacher of high standing who was acquainted with Arnold and who visited the school at Riehen when it was at its best says: "Arnold received new pupils every second year from the canton of Basel, Switzerland, for which canton the school at Riehen was established and by which it is supported." While there I met a number of teachers who were personally acquainted with both Hill and Arnold, who emphatically denied that they taught only semi-mutes and semi-deaf.

Every method has its weak points, because it is of human origin. This is just why there is a constant movement to improve. Not every change of method is an improvement. Time alone can decide. Were it required of teachers of the deaf to fit their pupils for inter-

course with their fellow unfortunates it could be easily done. The problem, however, is to fit our pupils for life among hearing people. The time spent in the societies for recreation is short, the time spent in pursuit of a livelihood among hearing people is long. Signs among the deaf cannot be wholly repressed; there will be signs as long as there are deaf people to make them, but there need not be a perfected sign-language and signs need not be taught. Since it has been amply proved that they interfere with the use pupils make of their speech and prevent practice in speech, is it fair to judge results of speech-teaching where conditions are so unfavorable? Even when children understand and admit that speech is far better, signs are so easy and are used so much without thinking, that often the child does not know he has made a sign. He has so much more practice in their use, and knows so well that those around him understand him, that it would be unnatural, indeed, if he did not sign. In this case, as in many others, the child is not competent to judge for himself. The earnest part of life will soon be upon him, when a little speech will be of infinitely greater value than the more gracefully executed signs. The effort on the part of the oral teacher to reduce signs to a minimum is not stubbornness and can in no sense be called a dislike for signs; it is simply a conviction that signs are a hindrance to the best results from speech-teaching, and for this reason the teachers of Germany have declared war against them. It is very difficult to determine just what is and what is not a natural sign, so the most successful teachers have been led to forbid every gesture of the hands. The quality of speech is estimated by these in direct ratio to the absence of signs.

Schulrat Walther, answering some of the charges made in "The Deaf-Mute's Cry for Help," says:

The value of signs, both natural and conventional, is doubtless over-

estimated by the deaf. They are not the magic wand by which the intellect of the deaf may be awakened. The natural signs, which are but a pitiable representation of the reality, do not possess in the smallest degree the power of a good picture, and how much less the power of the reality. Certainly they possess this advantage, that they are not only easily made, but can be seen at a distance. Therefore the grown-up deaf may use the natural signs as much as they choose. If they have first learned speech, these signs will not do much harm. It is possible for a person to speak several languages well.

The uncertainty and limitations of the sign-language, but more especially the total absence of grammatical constructions, not only make it a mere apology as a means of communication, but its systematic use leads to slovenly habits of thought. As a means of explanation, signs may in certain cases be useful, but there is, without a doubt, always the danger of leading to false conclusions. Therefore, as a means of imparting information, signs do not have the importance usually given them.

In the December number for 1898 of the *Organ der Taubstummen-Anstalten in Deutschland*, an article claims over forty places wherein Mr. Heidsiek plainly contradicts and refutes his own arguments. Comparatively few citations need be given to show the reader the style of this article. Speaking of the fluency of speech and accuracy of lip-reading shown by pupils in "gala exhibitions," Mr. Heidsiek says (page 299): "On such occasions, the game of question and answer is played so merrily that the uninitiated person completely forgets that he is at a deaf-mute school. But no sooner does he attempt, the exhibition over, to talk with these same children about the simplest matters, than they are completely transformed. Their facility in speech-reading deserts them, and their lips are again mute." But, speaking of the facility of his own class, he says (page 306): "Nearly all have made such progress orally that it is not only possible to converse with them by this means, but they also read intelligently simple news items in our daily papers, and make them the subject of oral conversation."

In another place (page 305) he says: "I have tried, especially with my present class, * * * to put in force the fundamental principles of the pure oral method, with

the utmost faithfulness, but the attempt may be called a failure. * * * I conduct my lessons rigidly by means of speech." In direct opposition to this, we read (page 301): "The representatives of the pure oral method think they can accomplish their purpose by means of complicated definitions, while I do not shrink from showing the children through the medium of gestures, dreams about snarling dogs," etc.

After a long discussion, going to prove that all the deaf think in signs, and that it is impossible for them to think in any other way, Mr. Heidsiek says (page 300): "If, therefore, the deaf-mute again and again resorts to the nearer language of signs, the defenders of the oral method may protest as much as they please, but their demand that the deaf should think orally is thrown to the winds." Directly in this connection Mr. Vatter said (speaking of Mr. Heidsiek's visit at the Frankfort school on May 24 and 25 of 1888): "In the conversation we had after school hours I asked him, 'Do these children think in spoken language?' to which he answered, 'Yes, *these* children think in spoken language.'" If the children in the Frankfort school think in spoken language, then it is not the fault of the method if all children taught by the German method do not also think in the same manner.

One more quotation (page 297) and I will stop. "There is an inseparable mutual dependence between oral language and the ear. * * * When hearing is absent from the time of birth, it is impossible to speak of oral language." And this from the man who said that his pupils were able to discuss the news of the day in speech!

It is true that the oral teacher has not always reached all that he worked for or all that he wished for, but let us give the method credit for what has been accomplished and not be weary in well-doing.

AGNES STEINKE,

Instructor in the Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wisconsin.

A SCHOOLROOM HELP.

DURING one of the sessions of the Convention held last summer at Columbus, Ohio, an allusion was made to a leaflet devised by the writer, and used for several years in the classrooms of the California Institution. Mr. Booth, of Philadelphia, expressed a desire to have the little device made the subject of an article in the *Annals*, and as several letters have been received from teachers in different parts of the country, embodying a similar request, I take it there is enough interest in the matter to justify the use of a page or two of the *Annals* in explaining the Correction Card and its purposes, with some practical illustrations of its results.

The card is a sheet of thin pasteboard, ten inches by seven inches, doubled so as to make a folder of five inches by seven. The outside page contains the following suggestions :

TO THE TEACHER.

The correction of language exercises is the bore and grind of the teacher's life. It takes much of his time, and, as generally done, it is almost useless. The following "notes" are intended to relieve the teacher to a great extent of this irksome task, and to throw the burden of correction where it will do the most good—on the pupil.

The method of using this leaflet requires little explanation. A margin of a half or three-fourths of an inch should be left on the side of the sheet or small slate—two inches with wall slates—which space is to be used for the teacher's work or numbers. Instead of correcting an error, the teacher simply refers the pupil by a figure (2, 5, 9, etc.) in the margin, to the particular paragraph which deals with his mistake, and in nine cases out of ten the lad will be able himself to make the proper correction either from memory or by looking at the note. Both teacher and pupil will soon come to remember errors by number, and there will be little need of the printed notes.

This folder has little to do with grammar. It deals simply with a few mistakes which are daily met with in nearly all compositions of the deaf. Every teacher knows with what exasperating pertinacity certain inversions of letters recur, like "commerical," "yours turly," "distrub;" how the infinitive sign is interjected where it has no business after cer-

tain words, like *let*, *see*, *feel*, etc., and how the pronouns are hopelessly muddled. It is expected that a constant *self*-correction of these and other errors will at last fix in the pupil's mind the proper spelling and mode of expression. It is also hoped that the teachers will add such suggestions as their experience may prove necessary or desirable, and thus in time a valuable little aid in teaching may be secured. Care must be taken, however, not to overload the leaflet, and thus defeat its purpose.

W. W.

The two inner pages contain the following numbered

Corrections :

1. Misspelling ; use of capitals ; wrong punctuation.
2. Wrong number or person ; wrong word ; word or words omitted or inverted. Don't say " bread of slice."
3. Misuse of adjective or its forms. Adjectives have three forms :
 (a) Positive. Example: New York is a *fine* city. *Fine* here expresses simply a quality of New York. (b) Comparative. Ex. : New York is a *finer* city than Boston. This marks a comparison between the two cities. (c) Superlative. Ex. : New York is the *finest* city in America. This means that in all the continent there is no city so fine as New York. (d) Remember that the termination *er* or adverb *more* is followed by *than* when comparison is made. (e) Never use the superlative form of the adjective with the conjunction *than*. Don't say " I like apples *best than* peaches."
4. Be careful about the use and agreement of pronouns. Pronouns referring to some person and thing must agree in number and person. Ex. : " The matron told *us* to put on *our* clean clothes." When you have used the first person in connection with the second or third person once, afterwards when referring to the same relation use the first person *plural*. Ex. : " John and I went to the city yesterday, where *we* met our friends. They (the friends) took *us* to the Cliff House."
5. The relative pronoun should closely follow its antecedent. See also that the antecedent has its own verb and predicate.
6. Improper use of *the*, *a*, or *an*. Use the article *a* or *an* when a noun is first mentioned ; afterwards in referring to the same person or thing use the article *the*. Ex. : " A man was sleeping under *a* tree. Lightning struck *the* tree and killed *the* man."
 Use the article *an* instead of *a* before words beginning with one of the vowels *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*. Use the definite article *the* when only one person or thing in any one particular place is referred to. Ex. : " *The* teacher is busy." So we say *the* Institution, *the* Principal, *the* President ; also, *the* atmosphere, *the* weather, *the* sun.
7. The subject and the verb must agree in number and person. Ex. : " The sky *is* blue." " The boys *play* foot ball."
8. Omit the sign of the infinitive *to* after the following verbs : *let*, *bid*, *see*, *feel*, *hear*, *help*, *make*. Exs. : " I *let* John go to the city." " The

teacher *bade* the boy stand in the corner." "I *saw* a flock of geese fly over the Institution." "We *feel* the wind blow but cannot see it," etc.

9. Avoid the repetition of a noun when the pronoun can be used without obscurity.

10. Mark the difference between direct and indirect quotation. Ex. = : Mary said, "I feel sick" (*direct*). Mary said that she felt sick (*indirect*). —

11. Never use the preposition *to* before the adverbs *here* and *there*. Do not say "He went *to* there," but "He went there."

12. Note the future signification of the preposition *in*. Ex. : "Mr. G. — will go to Chicago *in* two months." The deaf often say, "I worked *in* six weeks," meaning *for* six weeks.

13. Observe the proper distinction between the preposition *during* and the conjunctive adverb *while*.

14. Do not use the preterit tense for the habitual present. Ex. : = "Every Sunday the newsboy *delivered* the papers;" it should be, "*delivers* the papers."

15. Misuse of tenses.

16. Misstatement of fact.

17. Be careful in the use of the verbs *talk*, *say* and *tell*, *visit*, *lecture*, *protect*, *prevent*, *arrest*, *defend*, and the adjectives made out of the active and passive participles. The deaf frequently say, "the book is *interested*," meaning "it is *interesting*." Avoid making verbs out of adjectives. It is a common error of the deaf to say, "the robber *cruelled* the man."

18. Not good English.

Each correction number should be carefully explained to the class by the teacher, and abundantly illustrated by examples, till the pupil thoroughly understands the meaning of the note and how to apply it. Unless this is done conscientiously and persistently, the card might as well be thrown into the waste basket. After a boy has become rather expert in the use of the card, it will be found a helpful exercise to let him try his 'prentice hand upon his neighbor's composition. It will teach him careful scrutiny of language and exercise of judgment, for several of the numbered paragraphs purposely include more than one subject; for instance, No. 1 includes "misspelling; misuse of capitals; wrong punctuation; wrong number or person."

Do not give the whole card to all classes, but make selections from the paragraphs according to the grade of

the class, always keeping, however, the card number. Experience goes to show that after six months bright beginners can use with profit Nos. 1, 6, and 7. For a class of the second year may be added Nos. 2, 4, 8, and 11; after the fourth year the whole card can be given to a class. I think it advisable to have the pupils memorize the paragraphs as they are brought into use. It is no great strain and will ultimately save much time.

Number 18 comes into play in the upper classes, and calls for much ingenuity and thinking on the part of the pupil, and patience on the part of the teacher. It may be objected by the teacher that he has not time to go over the exercise twice, perhaps three or four times, but this is a case where *festina lente* aptly applies.

It may be interesting to teachers to see an example taken from a morning exercise. The first is the uncorrected proof as written by a congenital deaf-mute in his fifth year of instruction. The second is his corrected proof. The example is not given because it is good, but because it is rather bad, and the blunders are almost all the result of haste or carelessness.

One day a gentleman was
 4 sitting in a library looking out
 2 of windows, and saw a little
 18 boy sitting on other side curb.
 The boy was eating a sand-
 2 wich. A little boy dog ran on a
 1 road passed him, and he called
 16 the dog for he would give it part
 of sandwich. When the dog was
 15 opening his mouth to get it, the
 16 boy struck its face with a stick.
 The dog howled with pain and
 ran away.

18 (The gentleman witnessed that
 the boy did all to the dog. Then
 2 he stood up and took a cane and
 2 went out. He stood on the stairs
 1 front of the library, and called
 18 the boy. He took about a dime

One day a gentleman was sitting
 in his library, looking out of his
 window, and saw a little boy sit-
 ting on the curb outside. The boy
 was eating a sandwich. A little
 dog ran along the road past him,
 and he called the dog as if he
 would give it a part of the sand-
 wich. When the dog opened his
 mouth to receive it, the boy struck
 him on the nose with a stick. The
 dog howled with pain and ran
 away.

The gentleman witnessed what
 the boy did to the dog. Then he
 got up and took a cane and went
 out. He stood on the steps in
 front of his house and called the
 boy. He took a dime out of his

out of his pocket. The boy
 2 held his hand and hoped to get
 money, but the gentleman
 struck his hand with his cane.
 The boy cried out. The gen-
 18 tleman said to him, "I treated
 (you because you treated the
 18 dog." The boy was sorry of it.
 He learned a good lesson.

pocket. The boy held out his
 hands and hoped to receive money
 but the gentleman struck his hand
 with his cane. The boy cried out.
 The gentleman said to him, "I
 treated you so because you treated
 the dog in the same way." The
 boy was sorry. He learned
 a good lesson.

This leaflet makes no pretence to lightening the teacher's
 burden at once. It will for a time at least rather tend to
 increase the weight. He will be sorely tried at the pupil's
 indifference, carelessness, forgetfulness; but, if the card is
 faithfully followed, the result will be compensating. Nor
 does the card open any royal road to learning. It is
 simply one of the little helps and devices of a classroom
 which a wide-awake teacher is always seeking. As such
 and to such it is commended for experiment.

WARRING WILKINSON,
Principal of the California Institution, Berkeley, California.

THE FUNCTION OF MEMORIZING IN THE AC- QUISSION OF LANGUAGE.

THE following paper is a compilation of the proceed-
 ings of the April meeting of the Teachers' Association in
 the Minnesota School for the Deaf*. The program for
 the meeting was prepared by a committee consisting of Mr.
 H. H. DONNALLY, Mr. A. C. GAW, and Mrs. ALICE NOYES
 SMITH.

Two or three weeks previous to the meeting, the follow-
 ing request was made of all the teachers in the School:

"Please enumerate the various exercises in memorizing

* Reported for the *Annals* by JAMES L. SMITH, M. A., Instructor in
 the Minnesota School, Faribault, Minnesota.

that you are making use of in your school-room this year."

The responses brought out the fact that, with two exceptions, none of the teachers had regular class exercises with the primary object of cultivating the memory, though all of them made more or less use of memorizing in connection with various studies.

Upon this fact as a basis, the discussion of the meeting was prepared by the committee. Three papers were presented, dealing with different aspects of the subject.

The first of these was by Mr. DONNALLY, entitled "Primary-Language Memorizing," and it was mainly a practical exposition of his methods of teaching language. By way of introduction, he said that, while learning lessons by rote is generally condemned, learning language by rote is strongly supported, even by the opponents of the former. He read the following quotation from the late W. G. Jenkins:

"Persistent memory work of very simple language for evening study, followed by an analysis of the lesson and the synthesis again of the whole, is the best foundation for growth in acquiring language."

Mr. Donnally explained briefly his method of using Miss Sweet's series, which is so much like that usually recommended and followed, that it is unnecessary to give it here. But the most interesting and important part of the paper was where he described the method of memorizing pantomime descriptions employed in his class. He goes through some familiar pantomime, such as "Going fishing," "Plowing," "Shaving," etc. The pupils then write it out as well as they can in their own language. The teacher supplies new words as they are asked for by the class. When the word is the name of an object, a picture of the object is drawn upon the blackboard, with the name underneath. These original descriptions by the pupils are read by the teacher, who notes difficulties, omissions, and

excellencies. Then a minute description of the pantomime is written upon the board by the teacher, and is copied by the pupils into their note-books. The language involves the principles already learned, and is as difficult and idiomatic as the children can understand. After this, the pantomime is acted through again, following the text carefully, and reversing the original process. "The pantomime is made a framework to support the web of language." The next day the lesson is given to the pupils to memorize and reproduce, after being acted over again. The lesson has usually to be reproduced several times before it is sufficiently learned. Some can reproduce perfectly after one or two trials, while others never get it wholly correct. But marked improvement is noticed in all. The ability to memorize and reproduce becomes easier with each new lesson.

"The effects of this memory work are seen in all their original language, items, chapel reproductions, incorporations, and especially new pantomimes, as they first describe them."

Mr. Donnally presented to the meeting, for inspection, a number of his pupils' note-books and reproductions from memory in this line of work. They made a most impressive showing of familiarity with practical language.

The following is offered as an illustration. It is the third reproduction from memory, and is presented just as written by the pupil, who has been deaf from infancy, and has been at school three terms.

Plowing.

One morning after breakfast a farmer went to his barn. He slid back the door, and went in. He took the curry-comb and brush out of the box on the wall. He went into the stall, and curried and brushed the horses. Then he took the plow-harness off of one of the pegs, and walked back into the stall with it. He buckled the collar around the horse's neck. He took the rest of the harness and threw it over the horse's back. He put the hames on the collar, and buckled them. He buckled the strap under the horse. He put the plow-harness on the

other horse in the same way. He got their bridles, and put them on in place of the halters. He backed each horse out of the stall, and led them out of the barn. They went to the brook, and were watered there. He drove them back to the barn, and hitched them to his big two-horse-plow. Then he drove them dragging the plow down the road through the gate to the field. He plowed the field. He was very skilful, and the furrows were straight. He plowed the field until dinner-time. Sometimes he stopped plowing to rest, because it was hard work. At noon he unhitched them from the plow in the field, and drove back to the barn. He watered them at the brook. Then he unfastened the lines from the bits. He led each horse into its stall. He put the halters on in place of the bridles. He left the rest of the harness on them.

He took some oats out of a sack, and put them into a box; he got some bran out of another sack. He threw some water on the feed, and mixed it up with his hands. He gave it to the horses.

He climbed up into the loft, and picked up the pitch-fork. He threw some hay down to each horse. He came down, and went to the house for his dinner.

It should be stated here that Mr. Donnally's class is of the Fourth Grade (year), and, with two or three exceptions, ranks below the average in intelligence. Therefore, the results are the more remarkable, and can be ascribed only to the method and the teacher.

Two points further are worthy of note: 1. Care is taken to have these pantomime exercises relate to practical, every-day life. 2. By the repetition of the pantomime several times, in connection with the text, the pupils understand what they are required to memorize, and thus the objection to mere mechanical memorizing, which some might raise, is overruled.

A little reflection will show the thoughtful person what a great amount of language, dealing with practical affairs of life, may be imparted to the pupils during the course of one year by this method—language which they are not only required to remember, but which they thoroughly understand.

Mrs. SMITH's paper treated of her experience and practice with an intermediate class. When she first began to teach, several years ago, memorizing was carried to an

extreme, and had become largely mechanical. A reaction against this method of instruction set in, and was carried so far that the pendulum seems to have swung to the other extreme, and memorizing is almost discredited.

Last fall she desired to have her class memorize certain formulas in geography, but was surprised to find that they could not do it, though they could reproduce with changes of language and the usual number of errors. Further experiment disclosed the fact that the class was woefully lacking in the ability to memorize. She at once set about to remedy this defect. She began by giving them the most familiar nursery rhymes, "Little Bo-Peep," "Old Mother Hubbard," etc., increasing the quantity and quality of material gradually. Æsop's Fables followed, when "Sour grapes" and "Don't be a cat's paw" became common phrases among the pupils. As the pupils progressed in this memorizing exercise, the teacher took pains to give them facts and stories, reference to which they were likely to meet with in their reading. The idea was that this would tend to increase their interest in reading. When some of the pupils saw a cartoon of Premier Sagasta as "Old Mother Hubbard," they were much interested in it on account of their previous knowledge of the rhyme.

As the class improved in memorizing, the teacher gave them short biographical sketches of noted persons. The first of these was Washington Irving. The sketch consisted of 215 words, and it was readily committed by the class, who, a few weeks before, failed on a few lines of facts already known. The pupils were much interested in a following sketch of Longfellow, as they had recently been told the story of "Evangeline" by one of the teachers.

Items and pictures in the geography led to a memory lesson on Michael Angelo, and one of the boys came into the school-room one morning, saying that he had seen pictures of Angelo's works in the reading-room.

This memory work does not take up much time. A

well-memorized lesson can be written out very quickly. Better application and more universal attention have been secured since this work was begun.

If the memory were properly cultivated in the earlier years, great fields of interest and profit would be opened to the advanced classes. Memorizing should not take the place of any work done now, but if the memory were cultivated more, it would surely help in every branch of the work. All teachers have more or less difficulty with the cut-and-dried definitions of geography and grammar. "I believe that if the memories of our pupils were early aroused and cultivated by work of an interesting nature, the humdrum memorizing would come easier."

"In cultivating memory we shall be conferring upon our pupils a great boon which will be to them a source of much pleasure as well as profit, for, truly, as the poet says of memory,

‘In thy exhaustless mine
From age to age unnumbered treasures shine.
Thought and her shadowy brood thy call obey,
And place and time are subject to thy sway.’"

The paper by Mr. GAW was entitled, "Memory Culture Correlated with Thought and Reasoning." As the title shows, it dealt almost wholly with the theoretical phase of the subject. At the outset, he endorsed what had been said as to the value of memorizing as a special school-room exercise, saying, "Devoting an hour or two a week to this class of work throughout the primary and intermediate grades of our school would develop the pupil's memory and increase his command of language, so that before his course was completed he would have an opportunity to form a lasting taste for good reading, upon which, as we all know, depends the improvement of his mind and heart after his school-days are over."

After giving a definition of memory, he said: "Some writers distinguish memory as spontaneous or intentional.

It is because there is such a distinction that there is such a difference between a deaf and a hearing child in learning language. The hearing child learns to use a language by innumerable unconscious early impressions. While it is true that the mind must observe before it remembers, and that attention is necessary to apprehension and intelligent memory, we know that for one object we observe with concentrated attention, there are thousands of which we receive unconscious impressions. But the deaf child is deprived almost wholly of the unconscious impressions by which his hearing brother acquires language; and intentional memory, induced attention, concentrated application, and tenacity of purpose in the acquisition of language, assisted by the interest which the teacher can arouse, and by incessant, constant, and repeated presentation of language to the eye, until it is remembered without effort and until the mind responds to language without conscious volition, or until language becomes to him so nearly spontaneous as to lose its intentional character, must supply to the deaf child what the hearing child gets involuntarily, almost unconsciously, without apparent effort. The deaf child has to depend upon intentional memory for everything he learns, so far as language acquisition is concerned."

"Memory is one of the earliest developed mental faculties, and is strong when the logical perception is yet weak. Teachers should recognize this wise arrangement of nature, and develop verbal memory by having the child learn stories, verses, rhymes, simple poems, and interesting facts, as freely and as early as it can be made to respond to them. Parents do not wait until their children understand everything before they teach them to talk. The only way to get our children to use the English language freely and accurately is to make them absorb it. To expect much original work before the language becomes a part of the pupil is folly; but if his

power of comprehending language be well developed through intelligent memory, there will be ample time for him to express his own thoughts when the language has been absorbed, has become a part of himself, and the chances are that he will use good language."

"Memory is God's gift, the foundation of all our knowledge, by which alone we are able to retain what we learn from day to day. It is the storehouse of our ideas, and it is a great mistake to speak disparagingly of its importance in education."

"By intelligent memorizing according to the laws of the mind, our knowledge may be reduced to a well-ordered system." * * * "Memory may be compared to a business man's desk or cabinet, with its many pigeon-holes containing hundreds of different things, all in their proper places, ready for use at any time."

"A good memory is never the result obtained by over-taxing a person's mind with disconnected facts. Memory was not intended to take the place of thought, but should be cultivated in co-ordination with the judgment, reason, and other so-called higher faculties of the mind."

"Too much has been accomplished by memorizing in acquiring a foreign language to allow its importance and value to be questioned."

"There are few language exercises so valuable as committing to memory suitable short stories and pieces of poetry, properly explained before being memorized, and for this reason, as well as for the purpose of giving our pupils some of the pleasure in language which their hearing brothers and sisters enjoy, we should like to see something done here in this special phase of memory work."

"We believe that interest and enthusiasm in this kind of work could easily be aroused among the pupils, and that the work could be done without detriment to our other school-work. We also think that it would be of

much assistance in the fuller development of the memory and in the cultivation of a taste for reading among the pupils, and thus have a far-reaching influence upon their lives."

Those who are inclined to dissent from the importance given to memory in the foregoing discussion are asked to bear in mind that it is far from the purpose of the teachers to advocate learning lessons by rote. The point aimed at is the development of the memory as one of the faculties of the mind, for the sake of its bearing upon the acquisition of knowledge. If we bring matters down to a fine point, all knowledge is nothing more than intelligent memory. We are wise, not in proportion to the quantity of information which reaches the mind through the media of the senses, but according to the amount retained and assimilated, or, in other words, according to what is memorized. Therefore, the cultivation of the memory has a direct and important bearing upon education. The memory is as susceptible of enlargement and improvement as the biceps of the arm, and systematic instruction with this end in view should have a place in every scheme of education for our youth, both deaf and hearing.

HOW NORA LEARNED HOUSEKEEPING.

INDUSTRIAL training is not an interesting subject to the average teacher of the deaf, and a paper confined to the industrial training of girls is still further bereft of interest because it discards from consideration the features that make it worth discussing to most persons. Yet, notwithstanding its unattractiveness, there is a principle involved in our usual treatment of the girls in respect to manual training that will appeal to our sense of justice when

fairly stated, and a discussion of the subject is sure to gain for them a larger measure of their rights to practical, common-sense industrial training.

It is not a matter of surprise that a girl taken from home at the age of seven or eight years, and placed in an institution where she remains till she is eighteen or twenty years old, should find herself at that time utterly lacking in the knowledge of the domestic arts that should qualify her to take her part in the labor of her former home, or, worse still, to take upon herself the duties of administering the domestic affairs of a home of her own. Consider for a moment the meager opportunities she has had to master the details of housekeeping. If she takes part in the cooking for the institution, all is done on such a large scale and under such fixed routine that her labor may be likened to the part taken by a single workman in making a pin in a large factory. In sweeping and dusting, a little more scope is given, but the conditions under which the work is done are so unlike those that obtain in a private house as to be of little value. Besides, all of this service is divided among so many pupils that there is no chance for any girl to learn the orderly sequence in doing work that is found in home life. She does not have to plan, she does not even have to think, yet it is thinking and planning that alone enable many a woman to get through with her daily round of work. Manifestly, institution training is not sufficient, but there is an easy way out of the difficulty, and that is to give to the girls the same facilities to learn their trade that we give to the boys; that is, provide them with a house separate from the main building, and equip it with all the appliances for doing every branch of housework, and make the classes so small that all the children may in turn have a chance to learn the details of the work under conditions that they will probably meet with in their own or their parents' homes.

Such a plan has been tried in the Western Pennsylva-

nia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, and in order to show results and the obstacles to be overcome in obtaining them, as well as to make plain the need of such training as is here provided, I shall give a chapter from the life of a certain girl who for our purpose may be called Nora. As I may be accused of exaggeration in my narration of her career, I may as well confess that Nora was not guilty of all that was charged to her account, and that the blunders of others were frequently ascribed to her, for the reason, I suppose, that she would have committed them if opportunity had been given her, as well as for the further reason that a goat having acquired a bad name is made the scapegoat for the sins of all other goats, and bad boys and girls as well; yet in order to justify my story I will say that the incidents herein related did occur in the cooking school, and that while some of the girls gave evidence of careful home training, many others displayed lamentable ignorance of the simplest operations of housekeeping.

Nora was a girl of Hibernian parentage, full of animal spirits and abounding in vigor that sadly needed directing. She was placed in school at the age of twelve years. Previously to this period her parents had resisted all persuasion to send her to school, and even then yielded only grudging assent to the urgent solicitations of intelligent friends. In due time she was assigned to duty in the cooking school, much to her delight, for this offered a break in the monotony of school life, and, what was of still greater attraction, gave her and the other members of the class a chance to eat a good dinner of their own cooking, where variety and abundance took the place of the frugal supper at the Institution table. Nora's mother had not spent much time in teaching her daughter to work. She used to say that "the poor child had so much to do at school that she needed a rest while at home," and, before going to school, "It was a pity of the poor child, who

could not hear or talk, to have to work," so she was allowed to run at her own sweet will. When she told her mother that she was going to work in the cooking school, her comment was, "So it is cookin' yer going to larn, is it? Sure an' you will never larn to cook as your mother can. I do not care for your new-fangled cookin' ;" yet, as she said this in her broad Irish accent and did not use a sign to convey her meaning, it was all lost on Nora, as indeed was most that her mother said to her.

There were few rules of discipline in the cooking school. The mistress in charge, wise woman that she was, taught the children to exercise their judgment and not to depend on her at all times, reasoning that they would advance more rapidly through their errors than they would if they were helped over the hard places. Nora preferred her own way of doing things to that of her teacher, and her way has been aptly termed "main strength and awkwardness." It was by this means that she had struggled through the world to her present standing in life, and she did not care for another, even though it might be an easier, way. For to find the easier she would have to think, yea, even at times to reason, and that was to her wearisome beyond endurance. In a word, Nora was flighty. She was a trial to her teacher, a trial to the supervisor, and was now to become a trial as well as a wonder to the patient woman in charge of the Industrial Department.

She was at times so phenomenally flighty as to startle the observer. The writer stepped into the dining-room one day and found her clearing off the table. With an air that bespoke perfect familiarity with her duties, she carried the dirty dishes to the kitchen sink, the sugar-bowl, empty cream-pitcher, and the bread to the refrigerator, the butter to the pantry, and emptied into the slop-pail the meat intended for the next day's lunch. The vegetables remained to be disposed of, but, as the refrig-

erator was already filled, she did not know what to do with them. In her extremity she betook herself to thought, and, as the result of her cogitations, was about to take the ice out of the refrigerator to make room for them, when one of the other girls interfered and led her out of the room. Her schoolmates kept this blunder so green in her memory by frequent and uncomplimentary references that she was never known to repeat it.

However, Nora's thoughtlessness did not end with this experience. A few days later she was sent to sweep the hall, and, as the weather was warm, threw open the front door to let in the strong breeze that was blowing toward the house; then, placing herself at the opening, began to sweep. When seen by her teacher she was enveloped in a cloud of dust, vigorously combating the gale that blew the dust back as fast as she brushed it forward. Another morning she was told to scrub the kitchen floor and wash the windows. This was a task exactly suited to her taste, for it gave her opportunity to work off her surplus energy. The scrubbing was soon accomplished, and with the thoroughness that would have done credit to a sailor used to rubbing down the ship's deck. But the windows were a different matter, and she hesitated a little before attacking them, but only for a moment; emptying her bucket and filling it with hot water, she advanced to the fray with mop and scrubbing brush in hand. Throwing a cupful of hot water on the cold window-glass, there was a sudden crack not unlike the firing of a pistol. The result astonished her, and she stood for some time contemplating the havoc wrought, and then looked around to find the boy who had thrown the stone that broke the glass, but as nobody was to be seen she concluded to try another window. This time she did not throw water as before, but, rubbing soap on her dirty brush, attacked the window with the same animation with which she had scrubbed the floor. It was a small job and was soon disposed of to

her entire satisfaction. When the teacher came to inspect the work she was amazed at the sight she beheld; one large window cracked in all directions, whose fracture faintly resembled her shattered hopes concerning Nora's future as a housekeeper, another window streaked and cloudy to such an extent that one could not recognize his best friend through it.

Her favorite way of washing door-steps was to begin at the bottom and work her way upwards to the top. She always chose to dust the furniture immediately after the room was swept and usually left the chairs side by side in a long row in the middle of the room. It would be easy to go on and on enumerating the minor absurdities of Nora's career. She would insist on putting hard coal in the soft-coal stoves, and soft coal in the base-burners, scorching the clothes with overheated irons, placing salt instead of sugar in the food, etc., etc. It is putting it mildly to say that Nora was an unpromising pupil, and, had it not been for the awakening brought about by her teachers and the friction of mind upon mind in her association with her schoolmates, it is within the bounds of reason to say she would have been a hopeless case for all time to come. By slow degrees her reasoning faculties were developed and she no longer shrank from exercising the gifts kind Providence had given her, either in the class-room or in the industrial school. Slowly but surely she mastered the details of kitchen work, learning to sweep and dust, set the table, and wait on the guests at table. Yet, after all her training, there was still lacking a delicacy of taste, neatness, and discrimination in arranging table, cabinet, or parlor furniture. This is an insight given to few. Nora was conscious of her shortcomings, but in patient industry, conscientious work, and general efficiency few were her equals. Her mother was quick to recognize the improvement in Nora's life, and, though she did not think that

many of her new ways were better than her own, was free to admit that "the girl would some time be a credit to her auld mother." The neighbors said that "the dummy knew more than all the rest of the family put together," for she had brought neatness, cheerfulness, and comfort into a house where all before was untidy and unclean. This story teaches that by patient and intelligent training the rudest and most unpromising children may in time be changed into angels of light, to be sent forth from our institutions to carry habits of industry and thrift into the dark places of our land, and comfort into homes where comfort was before unknown.

It is almost impossible in an institution to encourage an interest in domestic pets that serve so often to make home attractive to a child. Nor can she there feel a sense of ownership in the numerous articles which strike her fancy. The institution child has her routine duties to perform, but at the end of a day or a week passes the task on to another. It is the close attachment to things which possession gives that fosters faithfulness and develops a sense of responsibility in a young child. If we will turn our minds back to our early life, we shall readily see what a potent influence this was in the formation of our character. The loss of this is one of the penalties the child pays to gain an education. One of the incidental benefits of the industrial school is to counteract in part the artificial life of the institution. Here, many of the restraints necessary to discipline in the institution proper are removed and an opportunity afforded the child to show the bent of her mind. It may manifest itself in the taste she displays in arranging the furniture, in her skill as a cook, in her ingenuity in doing things or leaving them undone, in her industry, in her grasp of the work as a whole, in her readiness to assume responsibility or to shirk it, and in the innumerable other ways that individuality may show itself when untrammelled.

Another advantage of the industrial school is that it affords a place in which to educate the girls to perform with ease and grace the social duties that will sometime devolve upon them. To this end they are occasionally allowed to give parties for the entertainment of their friends within the institution, issuing invitations and making them as stiff and formal as they could possibly be in high life. Nora was eminently sociable and, it must be said to her shame, was very fond of the boys. Nor did she show much respect for the formalities that decorum imposes at such social functions. When she saw the young men who had been invited to one of these stately parties coming up the walk, she ran to the door and stood ready to receive them. Selecting the one whom she thought most of, she drew him into the parlor at once so that he might get the best seat ; then, seating herself beside him, she told him of all the good things they would have when refreshments were served, and who prepared the different dishes ; she was about to go still further into details, when one of the monitors interfered and sent her out of the room for a private lecture. She set conventional rules aside several times during the evening when they interfered with her ideas of having a good time, but capped the climax by drinking six glasses of lemonade and eating a plateful of cookies. The party came to an end, as all good things must, but, before the time rolled round for another, Nora had received so many admonitions concerning her forwardness that she was surely converted into the commonest type of the social wallflower. It is not worth while to follow her social career step by step as she developed from a hoyden into a young lady of at least respectable manners. It may be said in passing, however, that she received sufficient polish, before she left school, to shine as a star of the first magnitude at any party her family could assemble.

One of the duties of the mistress of the girls' industrial

school, and by no means the least important, is to teach the language peculiar to her industries. This includes the names of the cooking utensils and dishes, the various operations in cooking, the technical parts of recipes, and the innumerable actions that pertain to housework. As she proceeds, a wide range opens out before her and she finds it possible to supplement the work of the teacher by giving language lessons concerning the most practical every-day topics. Nora was distressingly ignorant on all these subjects, but showed considerable willingness to learn whatever was assigned to her. She would, at times, produce some amazing sentences, calling common articles by very peculiar, though ingenious, names, as when she called the coal-hod the "coal pitcher," the oven the "stove floor;" yet these are no worse than the errors of speaking girls. I knew a bright miss who found her father's "shaving knife" in his drawer, and asked her mother to let her "put the lid on the pie." In a certain public school the teacher placed a lamp on her table and asked the children to name the different parts. All spoke confidently of the "chimbley," and, when called upon to name the base, gave about as many answers as there were children in the class, as "the marble," the "bottom," "the stand," "the thing that holds the lamp." Yet how ignorant we all are concerning the most common articles—as, for instance, the parts of a lock or a watch. It is related that Edward Everett was talking with a friend one day, when he wished to call the name of that part of a check-book that remains after the check is torn off. Neither could recall it and the conversation went on. The following week the friend met Everett on the street; a broad smile of exultation was on his face, and when near enough to make himself heard he shouted, "Stubs." "Thingamagig" or "what you may call it" does duty for many an article in our common conversation; so let us look leniently on the errors of poor Nora, who, when you consider her infirmity, may have shown knowledge equal to our own.

I have already exposed Nora's shortcomings far beyond her deserts, for she was not a bad girl; so I will try, before concluding, to "even up" by noting an incident that was greatly to her credit. Another motive for narrating the incident is that it carries with it a lesson concerning the importance of the highest kind of industrial training. One summer while Nora was at home her brother was taken ill and, in spite of the coal-oil and goose grease with which his mother anointed him, and the boneset tea and other Indian remedies with which she dosed him, grew worse, and a doctor was called in. He saw at once that the boy had malarial fever and that careful nursing and, in time, nutritious and palatable food would do more for his restoration than medicine. The boy said, "The divil a bit of his mother's cookin' could he eat," and he wanted Nora to take care of him. The doctor, finding that Nora was his deaf sister, hesitated to put his patient into her hands, but, as he knew it would not be possible for her to do less for him than his ignorant mother, he consented to her taking the place of nurse. She began at once to put into practice the lessons she had learned at the industrial school. Removing the soiled linen, she remade the bed, hunted up a soft pillow, drew the curtains to shut out the light, and dismissed the family into the dining-room, where they were to remain until the patient reached convalescence. Breaking the ice into small bits to quench his thirst, and placing the saucer between two pillows to prevent the ice from melting, she went to the kitchen to prepare beef for beef tea. Putting it into a glass jar, that it might boil till needed, she went to a neighbor for a tray and napkin, and soon carried to him his dinner of beef tea well seasoned, a glass of lemonade to take the taste out of his mouth, well-browned toast, and warm milk. The brother was amazed at the sight he saw, and the doctor, who came in just at that time, was no less so. He no longer doubted the ability

of the nurse, but insisted that she was to have her own way in all things. After a lingering illness, the boy slowly recovered. The doctor gave it as his opinion that he owed his life to the intelligent care of his deaf sister. The mother thanked God the poor boy was well, but gave the credit of his recovery to her goose grease and "yarb tea."

With this incident the story of Nora must end. But one word more is necessary to complete my record of the work of our Industrial Department. The parents of our girls have given frequent testimony of the high regard in which they hold this branch of our Institution, and in instances are not wanting where aggressive girls have revolutionized the home life of their families.

Another interesting fact is that many of our graduates secure places as domestic servants at good wages. One young woman has fifty dollars in a savings-bank as the fruits of her labor during the past winter. This subject is devoid of sentiment and touches only the bread-and-butter side of life; yet as the demand now is for practical instruction let us not neglect this most practical of all instruction, the industrial training of girls.

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SYSTEMATIC INSTRUCTION IN LANGUAGE.

Of all the problems which the educators of the deaf have tried to solve, the teaching of language is perhaps the most difficult and the least satisfactory in its results. It has been admitted by all writers in our profession that language is the most important object of our work, yet with all our efforts we still lament our failures. It is due, perhaps, to the fact that, instead of going to the bottom of the subject and studying it in the light of experience,

we have taken our standards and methods from those prevailing in schools for the hearing, and have depended too much upon text-books in geography, history, and the sciences, hoping that in some miraculous way our pupils would absorb enough language from memorized lessons to equip them for the business of life. This plan apparently succeeds with hearing children, but they really gain from other sources their power to use language. For the greater number of our pupils some other course must be adopted if our efforts are to be rewarded. Those among the deaf who have attained to the mastery of language have done so by blazing a path for themselves, their own unceasing efforts in reading and communicating with the world bringing their reward.

The literature of the profession in recent years shows that our thought and practice have been crystallizing into methods based upon experience in the schoolroom, so that the teacher to-day will not go wrong in adopting for primary language work the practical systems which recognize the orderly development of grammatical principles, using Miss Sweet's course as the basis for a great deal of original work, and some system of analysis and classification by which the pupil comes to understand the relations of words and the different parts of a sentence by use rather than in later years by definition and the rules of grammar. The simplicity of the five-column system makes it a serviceable one in primary instruction.

But when we reach the advanced classes, the term "language" in a course of study presents no very clear idea to my mind. I picture to myself a series of school readers, or a course, more or less technical, prepared along the lines drawn in grammar, or a haphazard course which includes everything from exercises on single words and phrases to the elaboration of an essay. Many methods have been presented for advanced work in language. They are good so far as they go, and should be made a

part of our work, for our uses of language are various, and our methods in the schoolroom should vary accordingly. But I have sought in vain for a plan which includes a system and a course by which our pupils can be given a thorough training in English. Teaching from objects, actions, and pictures; the journal; letter-writing, questions and answers, and reproduction have had their place in the primary course, and these should be continued to a certain extent. But the scheme I have sought and the problem I set myself to solve is a working plan by which language may be acquired, accurately, economically, and systematically, avoiding as far as possible useless repetition, yet reviewing often enough to insure retention. Any course to be worthy of the name of language study should be systematic, thorough, and practical. The pupil should have completed in five or six years all the more common forms of language, and have a vocabulary, including idioms, of the words in common use. The problem is, how to use the remaining four or five years in language study so that the graduate shall have a vocabulary sufficient to enable him to read books and newspapers, and attain to a mastery of its use.

We cannot think of language simply as an end in itself. Language, like money, is valuable, according to the uses to which it is put. It cannot be separated from thought. Language power represents mental development, and it should be accompanied by moral development. I set to work with the purpose of preparing a series of lessons which should be the foundation for several correlated exercises, each lesson to present clearly some universal principle in such a way as to exert a healthful moral influence. The course in language should be based upon some system or principle, and while the uses and applications may be and should be various, the main plan should be followed for the purpose of securing thoroughness. While our primary object is apparently to provide constant re-

few of the language forms, and build up a vocabulary which can be used as well as understood, we shall waste our time unless we include the higher objects of mental training and heart culture. Mental training depends upon the methods we use in instruction; heart culture depends principally upon the subject-matter of instruction and the point of view from which the subject is treated.

Taking up the general plan first, *Roget's Thesaurus* suggested itself to me as the most thorough classification of the words and phrases of our language. I thought if I could contrive some practical method of using it, it would be the only text-book I should require, as it would afford language lessons not only for a five-year course, but if the pupil cared to continue the study, it would last him for the rest of his life. To take up the categories in the order of the book, or to try to teach all the words and phrases in each category, was not to be thought of. The problem was solved by selecting lessons, always, if possible, from good literature, and making them the foundation of several correlated exercises designed to illustrate our various uses of language, and to train the pupil in the processes of thinking. Each of these stories illustrates clearly a principle which forms the title of one of the categories in the *Thesaurus*. After the lesson has been developed and the principle brought out, the words and phrases which the pupil will be most likely to need are selected for language lessons, sentences being given to illustrate their use, based on the lessons already given or incidents which are familiar to the pupils. The pupils then write original sentences, applying the new words and phrases. For the third exercise, the analogous story gives opportunity for the use both of the new principle and the enlarged vocabulary in connected composition. The words and phrases in the *Thesaurus* are arranged in double columns, illustrating opposite principles, and in some cases place is given for expressions which belong to neutral ideas. It is a good

plan to develop these contrasted and the neutral principles at the same time. Otherwise, I see no reason for following any particular order in presenting the lessons, aside from allowing the simple to take precedence of the difficult, unless something may be found in the events which form the topics of thought and conversation at any particular time. Let "An Old Legend" come at Christmas; "The Two Roads," by Richter, at New Year; ~~has~~ as a schoolmate been taken from them, Longfellow's "Reaper and the Flowers" would be appropriate; and so on, adding to the interest of the lesson the spirit of the times. There are about one thousand categories in the Thesaurus, and a course arranged for four or five years should nearly cover the ground, though some of the categories may well be omitted. A course might be prepared on this plan for each grade, though it seems better, especially if the rotary system be in use, to let the teacher follow one principle with another, as the occasion requires, suiting the lesson to the pupils' progress, and selecting it with reference to previous lessons. The fourth exercise in connection with the lesson is the development of the composition, which includes the pupil's thoughts and judgments as well as the story.

It may be well to consider the objects and methods a little more closely in regard to detail. Our first object is the enlargement of vocabulary. The study of language is primarily a study of words and their various meanings according to their relations with other words. We may take up words in a haphazard way, as the basis of language lessons, and find that we waste much time in the exposition; that is, defining and illustrating; and on the pupils' part the waste is still greater in the effort to classify and retain in the memory. We may trust to a sort of absorption process, hoping that a general treatment of history, reader lessons, etc., will give the desired result, but some of us have had that method tried upon ourselves

in schools for the hearing, and have had the pleasure of ploughing through a sea of mortifying blunders, and getting to be very old before we could use language with much accuracy, finding in the end that a special study of words was necessary. We may gain a general idea of the meaning of words sufficient to enable us to follow the thread of a story, but it fails when we come to clear thinking and clear expression. Every teacher has been amused and discouraged by the attempts of pupils to enlarge their vocabularies and vary their expression by a study of the dictionary and the substitution of definitions and synonyms. The case is not much better when the teacher prepares for the use of pupils definitions suited more nearly to their needs.

Let us see how the method previously outlined overcomes some of these difficulties. Language should come first to the pupil in a form that appeals to his interest. This point is gained and thought is aroused by the story, a piece of good literature, which illustrates a principle, and a distinct effort is made to render it clear. The general principle being understood, the mind of the pupil passes easily from the general to the particular, when we illustrate the slight differences in meaning and construction by sentences describing familiar things. The economy of this method lies in the fact that one word, the name of the principle or category, defines in a general way all the words and phrases, be it ten or forty, selected for language work, and the slight differences in meaning and use are learned in the only way in which they can be learned effectively; that is, by their use in the sentence. By the single effort to master the principle, all the words are classified and defined, and the mind is left free for the efforts in accurate differentiation. As an aid in studying words and securing precision in their use, symbols or abbreviations of words to indicate the nature and use of certain expressions will serve to economize time. Roughly,

they may be divided into classes, such as scholarly, common, slang; grammatical abbreviations; technical terms, together with the field of art or science in which they are used; figurative language; adjectives applied to persons; adjectives applied to actions; nouns applied to persons or agents; terms of contempt, irony, familiarity, etc. By following this method our pupils will be saved from much unintentional "fine writing," and from not a few slips caused by using a vulgar expression where they would use one of more elegance, if they knew how to discriminate words as the hearing do.

In carrying out the method just described, the second object of language instruction, drill on the forms of language, should be included, incidentally, by adapting the sentences to illustrate the various grammatical forms for purposes of constant review, and especially by requiring pupils to prepare exercises from the same sources and for the same purpose. Especial attention should be given to infinitives, participles, and connectives in complex sentences. The use of the complex form in all illustrative sentences answers the double purpose of reviewing difficult constructions and explaining the new words.

The third object is in the nature of mental training. This object may be gained in several ways, and the more ways you can use to work up the original material, the better will be the result. The principle will not become dry so long as you vary the application of it. At times make it a conversational exercise; at others, probe the thought and judgment of the pupil with the deepest questions; a reproduction one day; the analogous story, the next; if there is anything obscure or difficult, have it illustrated by drawing; often the story makes the best kind of a foundation for regular work in composition writing. The analogous story, which I have described at length in a previous article,* is a most important exercise, giving

* "Analogy the Test of Teaching," *Annals*, xliii, 201-209.

Opportunity, as it does, for the application, in connected thought, of both the new principle and the new words. It calls into use one of the most natural operations of the mind. Give the pupils a story, and as with the crowd around the camp-fire, one story recalls another, and then another, till the difficulty is not to go on, but to stop. After the pupil once becomes accustomed to looking beneath the surface for the leading principles, the work becomes easy. The pupil is brought into the state of mind best adapted to profitable study,—he wants to tell something and he is obliged to learn in order to tell it.

The study of language is not simply the acquirement of vocabulary or the framing of a sentence according to recognized grammatical construction, but we must intrench, in practice at least, if not technically, upon the rhetoric of the paragraph and the essay. The great burden of our school work—the composition—is so, because the teaching of it is purely negative. We assign a subject, and leave the pupil to his own resources. He blunders through several pages, and then we correct a few misspelled words, recast a sentence or two, and call it teaching composition. We may as well make up our minds at once that our time is wasted in doing such work. We must do some positive teaching and provide exercises to train the pupil in assembling his thoughts in a clear and forcible manner. We shall build stronger and secure better results, if we begin our work in composition with the simple paragraph which treats of a distinct topic. Let the topic be clearly stated, and the sentences arranged to secure unity, clearness, and coherence. There are several text-books which give good outlines for the arrangement of the matter in the paragraph. I used to think it would be impossible to get our pupils to understand the principles involved in the proper construction of a paragraph; and so it is, if we attempt it by rule and definition; but

by example and practice it can be done, and the results are much more gratifying than the usual order of compositions. This part of the work comes easier after a lesson has been treated according to the methods just mentioned. Having given the pupil the principle and the words and developed most of the thoughts he needs, we bend our efforts to building up a clear statement in the form of a paragraph. In this work, the teacher must lead, getting as much assistance as possible from the pupils, until they gradually grasp the principles of construction and perceive the increased force of a logical arrangement. The results do not appear in a day, but I believe they are worth the effort. We cannot expect good results in composition till we provide our pupils with proper materials, and, instead of telling, show them how to put the materials together.

Success in teaching language depends to a great extent upon the opportunities, premeditated or otherwise, for constant review. Repetition which has reference only to the succession of words is of little or no use; the lessons soon fade from the memory, and fail altogether when the connection is changed. But when a word or phrase is constantly recurring, and each time it is presented the pupil is required to interpret it in the form of a mental image or use it as the expression of such an image, we have an exercise in mental training which insures retention in the memory. What does it matter if all the words and phrases taught in a given time are not instantly recalled at the examination? The right beginning has been made, and the memory, which cannot recall the exact meaning on the spur of the moment in the examination, does recall it with the aid of the context. This is in accord with the way we naturally acquire language, the words becoming clearer at each repetition. If we can hasten and systematize this natural method of repeating impressions, we shall render substantial assistance to our

pupils. In this respect we shall find the plan herein outlined of great service. If the lessons have been selected with care and the principles brought out clearly, there will be stored up in the pupil's mind an ever-increasing number of distinct types—persons, animals, and objects—which are referred to constantly to illustrate the new lessons. Many of the pupils do this naturally; others should be encouraged and helped to do it. In this way, not only are the types of character made familiar, but the story, its principle, and the words and phrases used in expressing them, are repeated as often as we desire, the irksomeness of drill being overshadowed by the attraction of a new application. We may regulate the extent of this review by the number of lessons we select which present principles analogous to those already taught. As we advance, the new story may contain three or four principles which serve to review as many lessons previously taught.

Next to language, the subject of reading has received the most attention from educators of the deaf. But in many cases, the pupils are still left to acquire a love for reading by their own efforts out of school, as if to bring interesting stories and books into the schoolroom would somehow vitiate the mental atmosphere, or, by making reading seem a task, mar the pleasure of it. To be able to read and enjoy ordinary literature will be worth far more to the pupil than all the science, history, and syntax we can cram into his head. We may gain both objects by teaching the pupil how to read, for when the habit is once formed he will read for the facts as he needs them; but both objects are practically lost when we teach scientific and historic facts to the undeveloped mind for the purpose of interesting the pupils in reading good literature, because we fail to give them the ability to read. This work in language based on literature comes nearer being true study than anything I have ever seen, and I have yet to find the pleasure of reading marred by a deeper study

and a more thorough understanding of the language. Any plan to get our pupils to read voluntarily for the pure delight of it will in most cases result in one of two things—failure, or the mental laziness which characterizes the inveterate novel-reader. Pupils must be taught to understand thoroughly, to see the beauties in language, and to use the imagination, before they will feel the pleasure of reading.

The most important object to be considered in the preparation of a course in language is its value as a character-forming influence. This object may be gained, in addition to the others, by selecting stories that stimulate the imagination, bring out grand thoughts, cultivate the sympathies, and influence the pupil in the creation of high ideals. Our pupils have no time for a commonplace story. Every story presented should have some universal principle that can be separated from the local elements, some valuable experience of man, which may be applied to life, and influence the growing character of the pupil. The following story provides the opportunity for teaching a large number of words and phrases pertaining to the subject of education; it gives the pupil an elevating thought, and a new conception of the beauty of education.

The Mission of Education.

Michael Angelo was once walking with some friends through an obscure street in the city of Florence, and he discovered a fine block of marble lying neglected in a yard, and half buried in dirt and rubbish. Regardless of his holiday attire, he at once set to work upon it, clearing away its filth, and striving to lift it from the slime and mire in which it lay. His companions asked him, in astonishment, what he was doing and what he wanted with that worthless piece of rock. "Oh! there's an angel in that stone," was the answer, "and I must get it out."

He had the stone removed to his studio, and with patient toil with mallet and chisel *he let the angel out*. What to others was but a rude, unsightly mass of stone, to his educated eye was the buried glory of art; and he discovered at a glance what might be made of it. A mason would have put it into a stone wall; a cartman would have used it for filling in or grading the streets; but Angelo transformed it into a creation of genius, and gave it a value for ages to come.

There is a lesson and an inspiration in this story for both the pupil and the teacher. The Bible is full of stories which illustrate the most sublime truths in the simplest way, and they are just as valuable to-day as when Christ taught them. They are worthy of a more careful study than is usually given them in our Sunday-school work. Valuable lessons may be taken from the fable and the fairy story, and these are well adapted to starting the pupil along this line of study, because they usually contain but one principle, and bring it out clearly. The value of the myth is a subject of controversy, but in many of the myths there is much that is good, if the right point of view is taken. The much-abused story of Red Riding Hood is of little use as an interpreter of nature, but if used as a caution against being too confiding in strangers, it answers a good purpose. This is the lesson that several of my pupils have drawn from the story without any outside suggestion.

The stories selected for this course should be stepping-stones to the best literature, and end as high in the realm of literature as our pupils are capable of going within the limits of the time allotted them. My short experience since I have been able to put the plan into practice convinces me that there is no depth of thought to which they may not reach, and no height of enjoyment and moral elevation to which they may not aspire. It is as gratifying to the teacher to watch the class, as one face after another brightens on the discovery of some new principle and the assimilation of some new thought, as it used to be, when a child, to watch the coming out of the stars. More than this is the pleasure of seeing the lessons used and applied by the pupil himself, thoughts resolving themselves into judgments and determination, and efforts at improvement which show that character is being formed. In comparison, history, geography, and science, important as they are, should give way before this study, which is

more than the study of language ; it is the study of humanity. My sympathy is with all efforts to bring literature to our children, believing that our first and most important duty is to create in them high ideals ; to do this, our selections should be the best thoughts of the best men, and our study an intensive study of human interests, human motives, and the influences which form human character. Other things being equal, the stories selected should be drawn from those most commonly used as subjects of allusion. The benefits of such a selection will appear later, when the pupil takes up literature of a higher grade. It is this human side of education, both objective and subjective, that brings all the members of a class together with a single purpose and co-operation nearly perfect, realizing as the conception of education, "Thinking is working one's knowledge into something."

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FACIAL SPEECH-READING.*

It is well known that deaf-mutes in Germany acquire speech, and at the same time the ability to read from the lips of a speaker what is spoken to them. All who have had anything to do with deaf-mutes, however, know that this latter ability, in many instances, is insufficiently cultivated, and at all events cannot even remotely be compared to the achievements attained by hard-of-hearing pupils, or such as have become deaf later in years, whenever these have enjoyed the advantages of methodically conducted instruction in speech-reading. The result of this is that deaf-mutes attain *their* ability to read speech

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by themselves, largely from the positions of the organs within the mouth, when producing, during the progress of articulation teaching, individual sounds. Vowels, of course, readily manifest their characteristics externally; the consonants, however, of the second and third articulating divisions (dentals and palatals) deaf-mutes generally distinguish only by the position of the tongue; and consequently it is necessary, in order to be understood, that the speaker addressing them should open his mouth wide. A special course of instruction in speech-reading does not generally prevail in institutions for the deaf, although, for all the future intercourse of a deaf person with hearing persons, such instruction is of even greater importance than instruction in articulation, for the deaf have far more to learn from hearing persons than they have to teach them. Furthermore, the deaf, in reading the speech of others, are guided solely by the sensation of their own speech. They do not learn to read speech independently of this, merely from its visible facial manifestation. Finally, it is a serious disadvantage that the deaf, during the whole period of their attendance at school, are restricted in speech-reading solely to practice with their teacher, who adapts his teaching entirely to the standard of the articulation instruction. They should be encouraged to practice speech-reading with one another, and I hold this to be the best of measures to suppress chatting by means of gestures.

What has just been mentioned is an evident defect in the prevailing instruction of the deaf. When, therefore, any one hard-of-hearing, or who has become deaf late in life, applies to a teacher of the deaf to be taught the art of so-called "lip-reading," that is, reading of the mouth, and the teacher undertakes to instruct him in speech-reading in a manner similar to that he has been accustomed to employ with his pupils, the attainment will be very meagre. Speaking with faces close to one another

and mouths widely opened is not conversation at all ; it is simply mutual torment, apart from the fact that in public places such a thing is hardly possible without attracting attention. The reason that the congenitally deaf, even such as have enjoyed good instruction in speech-reading, frequently do not attain desirable results, is that in comparison with the hard-of-hearing and those becoming deaf later in life, their command of language is far more limited. Perfect command of language is of the greatest importance in order to attain absolute facility in speech-reading ; hence, highly intelligent persons will more readily attain this art than those less intelligent.

In text-books treating of the physiology of speech, the *external features* peculiar to speech sounds have thus far been dwelt upon and described comparatively little. Only those tones or sounds whose external effects have necessarily to be noted in treating of their vocal characteristics, such as vowels and labials, have, in this connection, been referred to, and even then not at all fully. The externally visible movements of the muscles of the cheeks, the manifold positions and movements of the lower jaw, have been neglected, because these were looked upon simply as secondary results of the primary movements, no special value being accorded to them in producing the characteristic features of the sounds. Although this view is, for some purposes, allowable, nevertheless these characteristic features are of so constant a nature that but little practice is required in order distinctly to distinguish individual speech-tones, not only in a front view (face to face), but also in profile ; and even when the speaker's mouth is covered, a close observer is able to recognize nearly all sounds simply by noting the positions and muscular actions of the cheeks and of the lower jaw, and some other distinctive features pertaining to vocal utterance. I would term these externally visible indicators of speech-tones *external speech physiology*.

The practical value of this external physiology of speech-tones is self-evident. The achievements of speech-reading instruction conducted upon these scientific principles are at times simply marvellous; especially so in the case of persons who have become deaf after infancy and have already acquired considerable command of language,—a circumstance by no means to be underrated. But even the congenitally deaf, and those who have become deaf in infancy, can attain an ideal facility in speech-reading. If this is denied, it only proves that those who deny it have had no experience in this special line of instruction. I was truly delighted in Hill's "*Anleitung zum Unterricht taubstummer Kinder*," etc., Essen, 1839 (p. 31), to read his confirmation of my own practical experience and that of others. Hill (Schmalz, p. 216 b), says: "Several of my pupils had achieved such skill that they could read the replies given to the teacher by their fellow-pupils, even when the latter raised their hands to prevent the mouth from being seen, and so compelled the others to read their speech simply from the action and movements of the facial muscles remaining visible."

Owing to the exceptional importance of the subject and the peculiar character of the periodical I am writing this for, giving, as it does, special consideration to the cure of speech impediments, it will be necessary to enter more into detail in regard to the *external physiology of speech-tones*. After having considered the same, I will, before concluding, add something in the way of methodical speech-reading instruction.

I shall commence with the vowels, describing the special external characteristics of the sounds. In the first place, the facial reading of vowels presents the least difficulties; and, secondly, by attaining greater facility in the facial reading of vowels, one also attains greater facility in the facial reading of words. The vowel movements are large, because, in speech, they have longer duration than the

movements of consonants. In practice it will therefore frequently be found that the vowel sounds of words will be read quite correctly, whereas for the consonants actually pronounced others will be substituted. Furthermore, let us just here lay stress upon the fact *that the number of syllables uniformly corresponds to the number of vowels*, counting, of course, the diphthongs *au*, *ei*, *eu* as single sounds. These observations of a general character will be defined more clearly further on, and I only make mention of them here in order to emphasize the importance which must be accorded to an accurate observation of the visible vowel manifestations.

The Vowel U (English OO).

It being necessary in order to pronounce U that the vocal-tube (*Ansatzrohr*) should be elongated as much as possible, we perceive that the lips, or, better described, the flexible parts of the mouth which constitute the *atrium oris*, form themselves into a nozzle, supported by the projecting lower jaw. On the other hand, the larynx, quitting its passive position, is depressed, thus extending the distance between the lower-jaw angle and the thyroid cartilage to its extreme limit.

In front we see the tubularly extended *atrium*, with its circular orifice, which, in clear vowel formations, is bordered by the rounded edges of the lips. The action of the lower jaw, however, is not rendered visible thereby, as its movement, in comparison with that of the soft flexible parts, is too insignificant. On the contrary, the chin, as the bonier part, seems withdrawn. That this, however, is only apparently so, can readily be seen by taking a side view of the face. We observe the aforesaid slight forward movement of both the chin and lower-jaw angle as the change is made from the passive position to that exacted in pronouncing U. We furthermore see that

the said change of form of the *atrium* causes also the soft portion of the cheeks to be likewise drawn forward. This movement of the skin (observable even more readily in bearded faces) is of such a peculiar character, more especially when in connection with it the changed position of the lower-jaw angle is noticed, that the U can be recognized even when the mouth is covered. This recognition is furthermore promoted by the increased distance between the thyroid cartilage and the lower-jaw angle.

The Vowel I (English, long E).

While in pronouncing U the vocal tube was elongated to its extreme length, with I (English E) it is shortened as much as possible. The *atrium* disappears almost entirely; the horizontal extension of the mouth aperture, together with the drawing of the corners of the mouth obliquely upward and backward, by the action of the zygomatic muscles, causes the lips to be pressed closely against the teeth. The larynx moves upward from its position of rest. Thus, its distance from the lower jaw, already indicated, is diminished. Inasmuch as there occurs here a contraction of the middle part of the vocal tube, the lower jaw must elevate itself in order to serve as support for the raised tongue, and at the same time must make a rearward movement from its passive position, and so assist in shortening the vocal tube. According to the sequence which governs force, this results in a movement of the bone obliquely upward and backward.

In front, therefore, we see the mouth broadened and upwardly concave, the upper and lower rows of teeth in close proximity to each other; the lower teeth, however, receding somewhat from their passive position. In people who have the thyroid cartilage (Adam's apple) strongly developed, we can plainly see it elevated.

A side-face view shows us, therefore, clearly a shorten-

ing of the distance between the lower jaw and the thyroid cartilage. The elevation of the lower jaw is observable only in its frontal part, the chin; whereas the angle in relation to the horizontal plane continues firm in its passive position, but in relation to the frontal plane shows clearly a posterior movement. The extremely narrow and pointed corners of the mouth are drawn upwards. Should we cover the mouth, we should even then be able to distinguish I (English E) by the strained direction of the cheek's surface which participates in the general facial movement. The cheek-bone constitutes the point of direction, and hence the action of the zygomatic muscles is clearly exhibited.

The Vowel A (as in mama).

"A is produced by all parts of the mouth-space being in their natural position," says Thausing. Consequently, in pronouncing this vowel, no characteristic feature presents itself other than the opening of the mouth without any action whatever on the part of the external facial muscles. We only observe the cheeks narrowing somewhat, owing to the lowering of the lower jaw.

This movement is alike unmistakable, viewed either from the front or side, and is executed without any perceptible deviation of the larynx from its passive position; only when using exceptional voice power it raises itself slightly above the level of its static position. The only thing notable is that, owing to the depression of the lower jaw and elevation of the larynx, the distance is lessened between the lower jaw and the thyroid cartilage. The *atrium*, which had completely vanished in pronouncing I (English E), and was elongated to its extreme length in U, naturally here preserves its passive position; that is to say, the edge of the lips, in consequence of the tension of the muscles and their external concave form, takes po-

sition a considerable distance away from the line of the teeth. Of course, this position is largely governed by the age of the speaker, and the fleshy or fatty character of these parts.

On the whole, we can note, as characteristic of A uttered in an ordinary speech-tone, a depression of the lower jaw.

The Vowels O and E (E, as A in fate).

When we endeavor audibly to make the transition from the A to the U position, we arrive at a point where we distinctly hear an O. This experiment of itself gives us the external characteristics of O.

The *atrium* is elongated, but not to the extent required for U. The lower jaw is projected, but less than in U. The distance between the thyroid cartilage and the lower jaw is less than it is in U, and greater than it is in A, and the tension noticeable upon the cheek surface is also less distinct than it is in U. While all of this is visible from a side view, we notice in front more especially the action of the crossed fibres of the buccinator muscle. In A, no contraction whatever of the lips is noticeable; but when the transition from the A to the O position is made, besides the contracting of the *orbicularis oris*, a contraction of the above-named fibres takes place, which results in the two corners of the mouth being drawn towards each other. They do not, however, approach each other as much as they do in U, and the lip-line or mouth-slit remains transversely oval.

If now we attempt with audible voice to make the transition from the A into the I (English E) position, we shall about midway (somewhat nearer to the I, however) attain the characteristic E (English A) position.

As the position for O stands between A and U, so that of E (English A) stands between A and I (English E); consequently the external manifestations correspond to these positions.

A front view shows that the quite uncontracted opening of the mouth for A is here broadened by muscular action in a strictly horizontal direction. As the lower jaw takes an upward movement, the two rows of teeth approach each other more closely than is the case in pronouncing A. A side view discloses to us an approach of the lips towards the teeth, consequently diminishing the *atrium*, an elevation of the lower jaw, and upon the cheeks (even when the mouth is covered) a drawing of the skin backward, the direction being about in a line with the lower edge of the ear-lobe. Hence, while in pronouncing I (English E), we have to deal with a movement resulting from the co-operation of the zygomatic muscles, here a simple movement presents itself. The position of the lower jaw, of the corners of the mouth, and the direction in which the facial surface is drawn, distinguish E (English A) from I (English E).

The Umlauts A^e, O^e, U^e.

Just as O and E (English A) are midway steps between A on the one hand, and U and I (English E) on the other, so are the umlauts midway steps between any two of the vowels heretofore considered; hence their external manifestations accord strictly with these intermediate positions. For any additional desired information upon this subject, I take occasion to refer here to the well-known vowel table of Brücke.

			A		
			A ^e	A ^o	
	E ^a		A ^{oe}	O ^a	
	E	E ^o	O ^e	O	
I		I ^u	U ⁱ		U

We see in this table that there are divers A^e, O^e, and U^e sounds, and even for the ordinary O we have two ad-

ditional modified sounds tending towards A. The latter, as is known, we hear in such words as *Ort* and *Ordnung*, and frequently in Low German. Accordingly, then, as either O or A constitutes the predominating sound of the mid-vowels, respectively, the external manifestations will correspondingly show themselves. If the vowel tends more towards O, we shall, in front, see an approach towards each other of the corners of the mouth, the lower jaw projected; neither of them, however, as marked as would be the case in the pure O. Should the vowel tend more towards A, it will be found that the lower jaw, and also the form of the *atrium*, or mouth-vestibule, tend towards the passive state which we have become familiar with in the A position. Identically so it is with A°, O°, and U°, the two first forming, as it were, midway stations between A and O and E (English A), respectively, and U between U and I (English E).

After the single vowels have been fully described, the external distinctive characteristics of the mid-vowels are self-evident. Alike both in front and in profile, and even with the mouth covered, all of the characteristic features of the vowel sound are clearly recognizable in the form of the oral vestibule (*atrium*), in the position of the lower jaw, and by the movements of the cheek surface, rendering it unnecessary here to recapitulate the positions of the several vowels.

Only O° and U° deserve special mention, because they are the result of two directly diverse movements. Whereas, in O the vestibule of the mouth was elongated, in O° and U° it is, on the whole, curtailed by drawing the lips against the teeth, which can best be seen if we make the transition from the A position to that of O° and U° in as unconstrained a manner as possible. In doing so, however, the corners of the mouth, in consequence of the operation of the *orbicularis*, have approached each other in a manner to impart to the vestibule of the

In pronouncing EU (approximately English OI) the initial and final positions differ greatly, according to dialects. In general, we can distinguish three different EU sounds, whose characteristics may be noted as follows: 1st, AU[°] (erroneously written A[°]U). 2d, O[°]U[°]. 3d, OI.

In AU[°], therefore, the initial position is that of A, and the final that of U[°]; in pronouncing O[°]U[°] the positions are expressed by O[°] and U[°]; in pronouncing OI by O and I (English E).

Although AU, EI, and EU are the principal diphthongs, there are, nevertheless, also others. Brücke distinguishes the following, whose initial and final positions are sufficiently characterized by the mode of their writing: AI, A[°]I, E[°]I, AU¹, A[°]U¹, OI, UI. The EU, which I would designate by O[°]U[°] and A[°]U[°], respectively, is unknown to Brücke, although it frequently occurs in Northern Germany.

This concludes the description of the external characteristic features of vowels.* At least I am not aware of having omitted anything that would be essential in a statement of their external characteristics. Possibly I may be even accused of having entered too much into detail; it may be asserted that the movements described are, in part, too insignificant to be observed.

To prove that such is not the case I need only mention that after two hours of instruction in the sight-reading of vowels, based upon the assistance rendered by just these little characteristic features, the success attainable is so great that all vowels and diphthongs can be promptly read upon the face even when the mouth is covered. In further support of what has been said, I invite attention to the closing paragraph of this article. The features here indicated remain distinctly recognizable even when speaking rapidly, and this is evidently a highly important matter in further practice.

* Compare the interesting chapter in Merkel's "*Sprachphysiologie*," page 103 *et seq.*

Should any one assert that all of the vowels can be pronounced without in the least changing the position of the mouth, I will, of course, admit this (see Thausing's "*Vikariat der Vokale*"), but I call attention to the fact that this mode of forming the various vowels is unnatural. One can, it is true, speak thus, but it is not done ordinarily in speaking.

Moreover, other movements exist which are peculiarly characteristic of certain vowels—such as the changes effected in the region of the temples. These movements, however, only attract attention in emphatic tone-production; in ordinary speech, and such is now under consideration, they are of too insignificant a character to be of any appreciable service. Furthermore, in current conversation, observation can be intently directed only to a limited area of the face, and hence, of course, attention is more directly given to that portion which affords the readiest means of speech-reading.

In connection with the above description of the facial characteristics which present themselves in the pronunciation of vowels, I now briefly summarize those demanding special attention.

In considering singly the characteristics of vowels, I directed attention more especially to three points: 1, the changes in the form of the mouth; 2, the position of the lower jaw; and 3, the movement of the cheek surface.

While pronouncing I (English E), the lips are so firmly pressed against the upper row of teeth that one cannot properly speak of a vestibule or *atrium* as existing; also, in pronouncing E (English A), the lips lie near the teeth, but yet not so closely pressed. With A, on the other hand, considering the peculiar form which the tender parts of the mouth assume when at rest, we have, in reality, an *atrium* or vestibule. It can be best compared to a hollow cone, whose point has been cut away rather low down. The line of the lower row of teeth forms the

basis. In pronouncing O this cone is elongated, and the height of the *atrium* enlarges itself considerably. In pronouncing U, the cone attains its greatest height; in fact, when pronounced forcibly, the curved lips already commence the formation of a new but inverted cone.

In pronouncing I (English E) the lower jaw leaves its state of inaction in such a manner that it stands shoved upward and backward, causing the lower row of teeth to take position far more to the rear of the upper row than usually is the case; and in pronouncing E (English A), it moves forward and notably downward. The latter position it retains in pronouncing A. In O, however, it again moves upward and forward; finally, in U, it again moves so far forward that with a slight additional movement one feels that the edges of the two rows of teeth closely fit upon each other. As the lower row of teeth in a state of inactivity is 2 to 3 millimeters back of the upper row, the lower jaw has traversed a total distance of 2 to 3 millimeters from the position of its passive or quiescent state. The larynx, which stood highest in pronouncing I (English E), drops gradually in succession as E (English A), A, O, and U are respectively given, and consequently at U has reached its lowest place. Accordingly, the distance between the thyroid cartilage and the angle of the lower jaw is least when pronouncing I (English E), and increases successively up to the U position, where it is greatest.

The movements of the cheek surface are closely connected with those of the lower jaw. In pronouncing I (English E) a diagonally upward and backward drawing, or tension, is observed; in E (English A) the tension is backward; in A downward; in O forward; and, finally, in U decidedly forward. Here we observe the successive changes which follow in order, viz: I (English E), E (English A), A, O, U.

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[TO BE CONTINUED.]

HELEN KELLER AS SHE REALLY IS.*

I FIRST met Helen Keller when she was just ten years old and was studying at the Perkins Institution at South Boston. She had already been taught by Miss Sarah Fuller, of the Horace Mann School for the Deaf, at Boston, to articulate, but it was very difficult at that time for any one to understand her speech who had not become accustomed to it, and my talk with her was through Miss Sullivan, her teacher and interpreter. It is impossible to know a person without direct and untranslated communication, and perhaps I might never have come any closer to this most interesting girl's mind and soul if I had not possessed a family of children, in whom Helen evinced an instant interest, and a home in the country which very strongly attracted her. It happened, at any rate, that she became a visitor at that home, and eventually she became a resident in it.

Meantime she made so much progress in her special art of reading the speech of others by holding her fingers to the lips, nose, and throat, and at the same time had so improved her enunciation, that any one could understand her speech. Even before she came to my house to live I often conversed with her alone, and was able to find out, as a matter of my own first-hand inquiry, what the characteristics of her intelligence and disposition were. A long subsequent acquaintance has enabled me to study her case closely. I should hesitate to make any public account of what I have learned in this way if I were not convinced that her history and education supply facts of real and permanent interest and value to the world, and that the circumstances which I can relate may serve as

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data for a somewhat better acquaintance with questions of psychological concern.

Helen Keller knows less of her early childhood than any other person of good intelligence whom I have ever known. Time and again I have endeavored to extract from her some clear information regarding the character of her actual impressions and recollections of the mysterious period before she had any knowledge of words. She invariably answers: "I remember nothing; I have only impressions—vague, vague impressions!" No other word than "impressions" to characterize her experiences of that period have I ever been able to get out of her. I have asked her to give me as concrete an account of these impressions as possible. Intending to do her best, she has told me of being shut in a closet for a misdemeanor, and of having some difficulty on a stairway with "a negro servant-woman named Sarah."

The reader will see that this reference to a "negro servant-woman named Sarah" complicates the narrative with facts gained in the period after she had a knowledge of words, because without words she could not know that some people were black and some were white, some masters and some servants, or that anybody had a name. The closet, the stairway, a vague notion of combat and resistance and of wants to be made known by struggle, together with the dim and vague consciousness that something of importance had happened when Miss Sullivan arrived in her father's house, are all that I can get of the real Helen Keller of the period before her first word. She was almost seven years old when Miss Sullivan arrived at Tuscumbia, Alabama, in March, 1887, and began her instruction. At that age other children of average intelligence have a long list of concrete recollections.

But from the moment of her comprehension of the use of words Helen Keller's recollection becomes crowded with incidents. She has told me of many things which hap-

pened in the first months of her study with Miss Sullivan—of a visit she made to Huntsville, of her relatives there, the names of children she met, of visits to the stores and to a photograph gallery, of the animals there and on her father's place, and indeed she has told me all the particulars of her instruction. Back beyond her knowledge of words, Helen Keller has no *mind*; with the knowledge of the true use of one single word—the word “water”—her conscious intelligence begins.

Helen Keller was born at Tuscumbia on the 27th of June, 1880. Her father, Arthur H. Keller, belonged to a family of Swiss origin, settled in Virginia, and mixed with the blood of excellent families in that State. He was in middle life when she was born. He had been a captain in the Confederate Army, during the Civil War, and at the time of her birth was the proprietor and editor of a paper published at Tuscumbia. He was a man of intelligence and attractive manners, with the large and chivalrous way of looking at the world and living in it common to Southern white men of the upper class. He was fond of animals and hunting, and of politics. He had had a previous marriage; Helen was his first child by his second wife, Kate Adams, a native of Helena, Arkansas. Mrs. Keller's father was a Northern man, settled in the South, who espoused the cause of the Confederacy—a native of Boston, of one of the Adams families of Massachusetts; and Mrs. Keller's mother, whose name was Everett, was one of the family from which Edward Everett and Dr. Edward Everett Hale sprung. These facts, I think, are probably worth noting as affecting the question of hereditary influence in Helen Keller's case. The best blood of the North and of the South may be said to unite in her.

Helen lost her sight and hearing as the result of convulsions following an attack of extreme indigestion at the age of about eighteen months. She had not learned to talk at all at that age. When she was about six years

old her parents began to cast about for some means for her instruction. Through a friend at Washington her case became known to Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, and it was by his recommendation that Mr. Anagnos, the director of the Perkins Institution at South Boston, was asked to send a teacher for her to Tuscumbia. Mr. Anagnos sent Miss Annie Mansfield Sullivan. The means which Miss Sullivan employed were practically the same as those which Dr. Samuel G. Howe had used in the case of Laura Bridgman and has fully described in his account of Miss Bridgman's education. It consisted in associating a group of simple manual signs made on the pupil's hand by the teacher, and certain raised characters on cards, with certain familiar objects. That is to say, Miss Sullivan brought an object—as, for instance, water—to Helen's knowledge by contact, and at the same moment spelled the word "water" with the manual alphabet on her hand. She also had cards with the names of objects in raised letters on them, and these cards she made Helen feel, at the same time presenting the objects which they named.

This was all the most incomprehensible mummary to the child, and while she did as she was made to do she discovered no significance in it. Indeed, she resisted it occasionally with hands, feet, and teeth, for at that period Helen Keller, since so gentle, amiable, and scrupulously unassertive, was anything but amiable. She fought against everything she did not want and for everything she wanted; her ordinary means of attracting attention to her wants was by more or less violent kicking.

It was a piece of the child's refractoriness which finally led her parents to send for a teacher for her. She discovered the function of a key, and one day locked her mother in a pantry, where, the servants being all in a detached part of the house, she was compelled to remain three hours. Mrs. Keller pounded on the door to no

purpose; Helen, squatted outside, felt the jar of her pounding and laughed with demoniacal glee. This performance, and its revelation of what seemed a singularly bad spirit, convinced the parents that she must be taught. After Miss Sullivan came Helen took an early opportunity to lock her in her room, and repeated the trick two or three times, each time with a kind of malevolence which was quite alarming. Miss Sullivan says that if she had not used physical force at this period and shown the most inflexible determination she would not have succeeded in teaching Helen anything. As it was, almost seven weeks of the hardest work that she has ever done in her life passed by before she impressed the foundation fact of the proceeding upon the child. Helen could, indeed, make the signs which corresponded with certain objects. If a doll were handed her she would make the sign which meant it and then try to turn to something else. She made it because she was compelled to make it; she did not know what it was for.

Helen has often told me the story of the dawning upon her of the fact that this meant communication. She was one day pumping water at the well—an operation which sometimes employed her restless but blind and uncomprehending childish energies. Miss Sullivan was at her side as usual; she watched her night and day for the dawning of the instant of comprehension, dominating the rebellious child's every movement, bearing in upon her with an untiring determination the Word which was to unlock the world to her. Suddenly, as the water poured out at the spout, Helen stopped pumping, and a light came into her face which no one had ever seen there before. Then she thrust her hands into the water and eagerly grasped her teacher's hands, and over and over again made, rudely, the manual sign which signifies "water." Her sudden eagerness showed that the word had come. Miss Sullivan took the child in her arms, hugging her, kissing her, and

patting her joyfully. Then Helen knelt on the earth, slapped the ground with both her hands, rose and seized Miss Sullivan's hands inquiringly. What was the sign for that? Miss Sullivan made it and Helen repeated it excitedly. She seized the pump and again clasped the teacher's hands. The sign for that? So she groped from object to object, demanding to know the word for everything. She went to the house and plucked her treasured doll to pieces, presenting its eyes and everything else about it that she could detach for naming.

From this moment everything was easy. The child's whole nature seemed changed. From literal kicking she passed to docility and tractability. Her eagerness to learn had to be repressed ; but she understood and was patient. In a few weeks any one who knew the manual alphabet could communicate rapidly with her. Soon came the raised print, and the art of writing with a pencil and an apparatus to keep her lines straight and her letters within bounds, so that in July, 1887, she wrote an intelligent letter. The ordinary facts of the visible world she soon learned—the color of the grass and flowers, the rising and setting of the sun, etc. With this knowledge came memory and reflection with a sudden inrush. She relates minutely, if asked, the incidents of this first summer of her conscious existence ; of the summer which went before it she has no knowledge whatever.

Helen Keller has never ceased to study from that day to this, for her periods of repose are also periods of inquiry. The main fact in her life is that she has learned and can still learn. She is gifted with a good memory, particularly for words. She tells a story which she has read long ago with very close verbal approximation to the form in which she first read it. My little children, five and three years old, sit a long time at her feet listening to stories which she tells them ; they understand her articulation as well as they do that of any other person. She

goes from one story to another, the children's favorites being "The Blue-Haired Ogre," "The Prince and the Swallow," "The Discontented Boy," "Perseus," "Theseus," and "Anawanda." "The Prince and the Swallow" she read in German, and has never seen nor heard it in English, but her English version, told to the children, is a very good and perfectly idiomatic translation. She never tells the children an original story, though she sometimes varies and embellishes a tale for their benefit. I have never seen any sign in her of the creative faculty, though I think she will be found capable of it if her mind turns into this channel. At present her intelligence is concentrated on apprehension and on reflection of a digestive sort.

I have spoken of her translations of German into idiomatic English. This is thoroughly characteristic of her. In her early education Miss Sullivan tolerated no slovenliness of language nor any omissions or ellipticism. Commonly she does not say "I don't," but "I do not." She uses few contractions, and never leaves a sentence unfinished. She is curious to learn new and even slang expressions, and ponders with evident pleasure their origins and significances, but does not adopt them in her own conversation—except in her lightest moments, when people are merry about her. At checkers—a game of which she is fond and in which she has a considerable proficiency—she exclaimed, "Play ball!" to her opponent the other night. In serious conversation she will not interject an expression which is not exactly appropriate.

I regard her excellent and accurate use of language as the result of a combination of good instruction, of close and attentive concentration on her own part in study, and of much reflection. In the nature of things, being unable to communicate except with those with whom she is in physical contact, she is left alone a good deal, or practically alone. Left thus, she either gets a book in raised

characters and reads, or else meditates with a very active mind. When any one expresses regret because it is necessary to leave her alone for a time she says, "I am never alone, for I have my thoughts." Commonly she accompanies her thoughts, when thus left to herself, with incessant spelling with her fingers—making rapidly the manual signs for a great many words. (She does not herself use the manual alphabet for anything whatever except "thinking," or for shaping sentences before she writes them, as all her communication of her own thoughts to the hearing world is now by speech.) As she thinks, her expressive face invariably reveals the general character, though not the subject, of her cogitations. The fact that she incessantly spells thus has convinced me that with her the process of cogitation is slow. The word, upon which her conscious existence rests, still dominates her.

This fact explains many of the supposed marvels of her mind. Spared the infinite diffusion of her mental energies in the period of childhood, such as the ordinary child is subjected to by the circumstances of his environment, she concentrated them upon the few things in which she came to excel. Spared now, by her habit of sticking to words, from the rapid and heedless flight of the thought and mind over wide fields of half-formed and unrelated images, such as is characteristic of most of us, she preserves the concreteness of thought which makes it easy for her to master foreign idioms.

I read French with her—Mérimée's "Colomba"—when her vocabulary in that language was small, but she astonished me by her ready insight into the idioms. Given the meaning of the words in a sentence of a foreign tongue and their combinations apparently cannot puzzle her. Her tutor tells me that this fact is as characteristic of her understanding of Greek as I found it to be of her French. She looks straight into the heart of language.

Mathematics have presented much more difficulty to her than language, but under the skilful instruction of Mr. M. S. Keith, her tutor in these branches, she has gone rapidly ahead. Consider what a task the working out of a problem in algebra presents to her brain. She is now working, for instance, in what are called "radical expressions," and one of her latest problems is this :

$$\text{"Solve } x^5 + 2x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x + 1 = 0.\text{"}$$

Merely to state the successive processes in the solution of this requires half a page of fine print in the algebra, yet all this she must carry entirely in her head, being ready to recur to any step in the solution at any moment. She does not read the problem, but it is read to her on the hand by the sense of touch. In her geometry she makes use of wires put into all the forms requisite to make geometrical figures which she fastens into a cushion. Of course, in mathematics she is aided greatly by her habit of close concentration, from which no outward circumstance distracts her. She is also in a sense hampered by it, since any error becomes firmly grounded by the same concentration and is with difficulty displaced.

Helen Keller is as normal a young person, in the respect of her ordinary likes and dislikes, as any one you would be apt to meet in a day's journey—always excepting in what may be regarded by some as normal vices, which she certainly has not. She has quite normal curiosity, but she has been without personal experience of evil save in some very limited ways. She certainly comes nearer to being completely good than any other person whom I have ever known.

Always eager to take part in a general conversation, she is nevertheless instantly and smilingly submissive to total exclusion from it. If she speaks when some one else is speaking a tap on the hand or arm is sufficient to

till her ; and, though her face betrays her thoughts, no loud ever comes upon it under such suppression.

Nevertheless, a conversation among her intimate friends ever goes far without her smiling inquiry, "What are you talking about?" Apprised of the subject, she always makes a pat contribution. A word translated to her on the hand now and then enables her to comprehend with surprising timeliness. She is particularly fond of taking part in the propounding of riddles and conundrums, and is clever at this kind of diversion. Her eagerness to practise articulation makes her fond of difficult trick combinations of sounds, like "Eight great gray geese grazed gayly into Greece," which she pronounces with surprising rapidity. On her coming home for her Christmas vacation this year she ordered me to utter this rigmarole :

A tutor who tooted the flute
Tried to teach two young tutors to toot.
Said the two to the tutor,
"Is it harder to toot, or
To tutor two tutors to toot?"

With her fingers on my lips she laughed heartily at my halting efforts to pronounce the lines. Her amusements are apt to be simple. She plays solitaire—thirteen kinds of it—at cards a great deal. I have already mentioned her fondness for checkers, which she plays with "men" in which the white are made round at the top and the black flat, with holes in which a crown can be inserted or "kings," on a board provided with shallow round holes in which the "men" sit in the squares. She keeps track of the position of the "men" by feeling the board over, and is apprised of her adversary's having made his move by feeling the jar of the "man" put into his hole.

This suggests the matter of the delicacy of her sense of touch. It is certainly keen, but its keenness has unquestionably been developed from a merely normal foundation. She "hears," as she expresses it—that is, feels—

a footfall on the floor of the room, and distinguishes footfalls which differ markedly one from another. Last summer, when she was taking her exercise one day by walking up and down the veranda, I was seated in a chair near the door, and a little child, barely a year old but able to walk freely, came walking lightly out upon the veranda. Helen stopped at once, and coming up to me and touching my lips asked, "Is Marion here?" I answered, "Yes." Helen smiled and said, "I thought I felt a soft sound."

She is particularly sensitive to musical vibrations. She is fond of holding her hands against a piano when it is being played, and her face shows keen pleasure while she is thus occupied. She distinguishes between high chords and low chords struck on a piano, but her sense of feeling does not distinguish between major and minor chords nor between concordant and discordant sounds. It is to be borne in mind that she has no remainder of hearing whatever, the drums of her ears being ruptured.

A great deal has been said and written about her power of recognizing people by the touch of the hand. She certainly does recognize all her friends readily by shaking the hand, and sometimes recognizes at a second meeting, and some time afterward, a person whom she has met but once before. I have studied this accomplishment of hers a good deal, and am convinced that she recognizes her acquaintances not by the feeling of the hand, but by the slight individual or characteristic movement or movements of each person.

After Helen Keller had lived in my house a year, and knew my footfall and recognized me at the slightest touch, I once gave her my hand in a perfectly lifeless way, consciously depriving it of any characteristic movement, and she did not know who I was. One evening it occurred to a company of people at my house to blindfold one person at a time, and let each person when so blindfolded see how many hands he could recognize by

grasping them. Total failures to identify were the rule. At last Helen Keller took the place of the blindfolded, and Miss Sullivan, her teacher, with whom she had lived constantly for ten or eleven years, gave her her hand in a limp and lifeless manner. Helen did not know who it was and guessed the wrong person.

But on another occasion I attended a reception which Helen gave, and after she had shaken the hands of two hundred other people I shook her hand in my ordinary and natural manner, but without the slightest trick of intentional identification. She at once called me by name. All that was necessary was that I should do the usual and characteristic thing. I have no doubt that people possessed of their sight could distinguish these differences if they were in the habit of regarding them.

With all her delicacy of the sense of touch or feeling Helen Keller is not clever in the use of her hands except in the manipulation of typewriters and other writing apparatus, and she is much less clever in getting about than her young friend, Thomas Stringer, who is also deaf and blind. Ordinarily she follows around the wall of a room to pass through it, and if she attempts to cross it she is as apt to bring up at one place as another. I think this is in considerable part the fault of her instruction, though she does seem to be lacking in the ordinary sense of direction. She has some small knowledge of knitting and crocheting, and likes to do this work fairly well, though it is apparent that she prefers a book.

I have mentioned her surprising cleverness with the typewriter. This appears to me to be phenomenal. She writes freely on three or four different kinds of machines, having varying arrangement of letters, and without raised letters on the keys. She seldom strikes more than one letter wrong, quite often none, on an entire page of manuscript. Her strokes always have the same force, so that her pages show a perfectly even impression. She does

not write very rapidly, but with a steady, even persistence and perfectly regular movement, which makes a thousand words come out of the machine in a surprisingly short time.

She has a typewriter with which she writes Greek with the true Greek characters; it is a shuttle machine and without raised characters on the keys. With it she also writes English, taking out the Greek shuttle and putting in the English shuttle when she needs it. It is needless to inform any one who operates a typewriter that this change involves, for a blind person, first the thinking of the key as bearing the Greek alphabet and then as bearing the English or Roman alphabet—in either case, with Helen, a matter of the imagination, for she has never felt raised Greek characters, and conceives the Greek alphabet through Roman equivalents and combinations of Roman letters. But the arrangement of these Roman equivalents, in her mind, is quite different on the keyboard of the same machine from that of the English alphabet, and her mind has to go from one arbitrary, unseen, unfelt arrangement to another. Yet practically she never strikes a wrong key.

It needs, indeed, but words and letters to bring out the essential cleverness of her mind. Her articulation is a remarkable triumph in view of the fact that she has never heard the sound of her own voice or of any other. She has a tendency, if not corrected, to shade a vowel sound after a time into another, insensibly merging our u, for instance, into the German ü; but a reminder never fails to bring her right back to the right sound.

If Helen Keller has not genius—and I certainly do not assert that she has not—she has what is better, perfect honesty and a heart of truth and simplicity. She is incapable of guile, even of the polite sort that consists in the adaptation of our expressions and statements to the wishes and ideas of people with whom we are conversing.

Helen is unable to frame a deceit. Nevertheless, she

loves dearly to play practical jokes of an innocent sort ; but they are generally very melancholy failures, through her total inaptitude for any form of guile. She is extremely fond of outdoor romping and yearns for adventures by sea and land. She struggles—of course, with a guide, for if she is left entirely alone out-of-doors she simply stands stock still, or sits down on the ground until rescued—with great joy up the steepest hills and through the densest thickets. To be “lost” in our little woods with only a child for a guide is an intense delight to her. She revels in rough handling and friendly “scraps.” She is a strong and healthy girl and feels the need of exercise. She eats heartily, but has a somewhat difficult—that is, an extremely sensitive—palate. Any taste which is but faintly perceived by other people seems to be strongly marked to her. The number of articles of diet which she “does not like” is alarming, but there always remains a good variety of things, mostly plain and nutritious articles, to meet the demands of her appetite. Cream gravies and “squashy” things generally she detests. She eats heartily of meat, and drinks a great deal of milk, but never any tea or coffee.

She has a kind of amiable stubbornness all her own, and it is hard to get her out of a preconceived notion that a certain way which she has adopted is the only right way in which to do a thing. For a long time it was hard to teach her to swim, because she obstinately insisted that it was necessary to throw her head so far back and to hold her chin so high in the air that she could not maintain a horizontal position in the water. When at last she was made to realize this she began to master the movements, and now swims quite well and for a long distance, though she cannot hold to a straight line in swimming and needs a touch now and then by way of guidance. She finds pleasure in swimming and rowing, though she cannot keep the boat on a straight course without the rudder.

Helen is an unconquerable liberal in her ideas. She inclines to take the side of the people in all matters which they make their concern. She is instinctively philanthropical and benevolent. Her notions in sociological matters are pretty nearly the direct opposite of those of Miss Sullivan, who is extremely conservative. This is but one of a good many indications that she forms opinions as the result of her own reading and reflection. She holds her opinions ardently, and is easily thrilled to emotion. Her mind, however, is beautifully superior to all political parties and all sectional considerations.

Helen has an ardent American patriotism, and though she is a great friend of peace and a hater of war she took a watchful interest in all the proceedings of the Spanish-American War. I give below a fragment from a letter to a friend which she has recently written and which is characteristic of her :

Have you seen Kipling's "Dreaming True" or "Kitchener's School"? The former is a strong poem and has set me to dreaming, too. Of course you have read about the Gordon Memorial College, which the English are to erect at Khartum. While I was thinking over the blessings that would come to the people of Egypt through this college, and eventually to England herself, there came into my heart the strong desire that our own dear country should in a similar way convert the terrible loss of her brave sons of the "Maine" into a like blessing to the people of Cuba. Would a college at Havana not be the noblest and most enduring monument that could be raised to the brave men of the "Maine," as well as a source of infinite good to all concerned? Imagine entering the Havana harbor and having the pier near which the "Maine" was anchored on that dreadful night when she was mysteriously destroyed pointed out to you, and being told that the great, beautiful building overlooking the spot was the Maine Memorial College erected by the American people, and having for its object the education both of Cubans and Spaniards! What a glorious triumph such a movement would be of the best and highest instincts of a Christian nation! In it there would be no suggestion of hatred or revenge, nor trace of the old-time belief that might makes right. On the other hand, it would be a pledge to the world that we intend to stand to our declaration and give Cuba to the Cubans as we have fitted them to assume the duties and responsibilities of a self-governing people. Will you please let me know what you would think of such a project?

Her education is proceeding rapidly. By next month (June) she will be ready for the Radcliffe College entrance examinations. There is every reason why she should have this advanced education; she is intellectually and morally worthy of it, and takes delight in the acquisition of it. It is impossible to doubt that if she lives to maturity she will render back to the world the value of it.

JOSEPH EDGAR CHAMBERLIN,
Wrentham, Massachusetts.

THE AKOULALLION.

AMONG the recent inventions for benefiting the hearing of the deaf is an instrument called the Akoulallion, invented by Mr. M. R. Hutchison, an electrical engineer of Mobile, Alabama.

The name Akoulallion is a very euphonious one, derived from the Greek verbs *ἀκούω*, to hear, and *λαλέω*, to speak, and conveys the idea that "to hear is to speak." The instrument has been under construction for over two years, and in perfecting it the inventor has spared neither time nor money. He has taken a course under a specialist on the diseases and the anatomy of the ear, and in constructing the Akoulallion has applied his knowledge of the value of electricity in awakening and developing nerve force.

To the deaf whose ears are diseased the instrument is practically useless, but to those whose hearing is in a dormant condition it will be very valuable. The percentage of pupils in our schools who could be benefited by auricular instruction is greater than we might at first suppose. Mr. J. A. Gillespie, formerly superintendent of the Nebraska School for the Deaf, says:

I have noticed that many of the children supposed to be entirely deaf, and many who are congenitally deaf, have, as a matter of fact, a

latent vestige of hearing. Fifteen years of effort and experience convince me that this latent sense can, by exercising it and feeding it, be made of great practical value to the child. Left to itself the deafness would be more confirmed, and in time the child would possibly lose what little hearing he had.

Auricular development means more than teaching through the hearing of those partially deaf, or, as they are usually termed, the "hard of hearing." It means this and, in addition, it means the awakening and developing of the latent power of hearing. It goes even farther than this; it directs attention to the physician's treatment in cases of nervous diseases where the organs of hearing are likely to be affected. It regards the treatment defective which does not include treatment to preserve the organs of hearing in these cases.

The children who can be benefited by the auricular method constitute a large class. First, they are those in the schools for the deaf who have sufficient hearing to be good subjects, amounting to perhaps twenty per cent. Then the children in the public schools who are too deaf to get the benefit of the recitations and explanations, and lag behind their classes and become discouraged and are classed as dull pupils, when the fact is that it is not a matter of dullness but of deafness. Then there is another large class of children that are too deaf to go to the public schools, and not deaf enough for the schools for the deaf. These remain at home to grow up without education. Taking these three classes together, I have no doubt in my own mind but the total would be greater than the whole number of the so-called deaf and dumb.

It is impossible at present to say of how much value the Akoulallion will prove to the deaf, but in class instruction it is superior to anything yet invented. The flexible tube, audiphone, and other similar instruments can be used only for individual instruction. With the Carrier Duplex three or four may be instructed simultaneously. The Akoulallion can be used to advantage where either of the above is valuable, and it has the additional advantage of allowing an unlimited number to be instructed at the same time.

By using the instructing outfit the teacher can sit at his desk and teach any number of pupils desired. Without any effort on his part, except the manipulation of a simple regulator to control the intensity of sound, he can cause all the members of his class to hear the particular sound he wishes to convey. Should one of the pupils



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require individual instruction, the other members of the class can continue practising the sound, each hearing his own voice, without interfering one with another. Every child has his own instrument entire, including two ear-pieces and a sound-receiver. Each ear-piece has the intensity corresponding to the sensitiveness of the ear to which it is applied. The intensity of sound is adjustable on each ear-piece and also on the large instrument used by the teacher. The pupil has simply to press down a lever to bring himself into communication with the teacher. By releasing the lever he is shut off from the teacher and the remainder of the class. The ear-pieces are flat and consequently there is no danger of irritating the ear, as frequently occurs when using instruments of a different shape.

It is a well-established fact that, in certain instances of partial hearing, vibration assists the hearing. In view of this fact the Akoulallion has a vibrator attached to massage the ear. The teacher can use this vibrator a short time before beginning the instruction of his class, and there is every reason to believe that this daily treatment will prove of as great advantage to the ear as massage is to the diseased body.

Of the portable instrument very little can be said except that it is of convenient size, there being several designs, to suit the taste of the purchaser. It may be large, comparatively speaking, and more efficient, or small and not so intense.

A few weeks ago Mr. Hutchison made experiments with fifty of the pupils of our school, chosen at random from the different classrooms. He attached his instrument to a phonograph and at least forty out of the fifty experimented upon could follow the music and receive some pleasurable emotion from it. They could detect the difference between high and low tones and indicate the rise and fall of the music by a motion of the hand.

This was especially marked in banjo music. One boy who was born deaf and whose parents and grandparents were deaf and dumb could not hear a cornet sounded a few feet distant nor could he detect the human voice close to his ear, yet by the aid of the Akoulallion he was able to hear words spoken in moderately high tones at a distance of thirty feet, and at the same distance the softest tones of the cornet were audible to him. This is only one of a large number of successful experiments made. The success achieved was enough to convince any one that the Akoulallion is destined to play a prominent part in the auricular training of the deaf in our schools and that by its means a larger number than ever before will have their hearing awakened and developed.

The illustrations accompanying this article show the Akoulallion in its present laboratory shape. In the first picture is shown the large instrument intended to be used by instructors of the deaf. The inventor is seated at the table, holding in his left hand the instrument into which the instructor speaks, and in his right the regulator by which the intensity of the sound delivered to the pupils is controlled. Directly behind him is Mr. Lyman Gould, of Mobile, Alabama, a former pupil of the Alabama Institute, deaf from infancy from scarlet fever. He is the primary "inspiration" of the invention. He takes it to church every Sunday and enjoys the music. The other persons in the picture are not deaf, but are introduced to show the instrument in operation. The one on the left holds to his ear the portable instrument.

The other picture shows the portable instrument held to the ear of the inventor. This instrument will be much reduced in size at an early date, so as to be less conspicuous.

THOMAS S. McALONEY,
Instructor in the Alabama Institute, Talladega, Alabama.

ETHICS.

I remember reading in an eastern paper, a few years ago, of a lady residing in Brooklyn, who gathered about her, on one or more evenings a week, a class of newsboys and formed a sort of club. She found, as our own ears give daily evidence, that these boys searched out the most startling matter in their papers and gave voice to it to increase their sales. This searching and voicing she believed influenced their lives to a great degree and led to many of their rough ways. To counteract this, she promised tickets to each one who would recount at the club some brave deed or act of kindness which they had seen. It mattered not whether they found it in the paper or saw it on the street. The member who held the most tickets at the end of a certain time was to receive a prize. The article went on to describe the gradual change in the minds of those small boys as to what constituted true bravery or kindness and stated how the effect of a refining influence was plainly to be seen in their behavior ere the season was over.

This plan seemed to be feasible for school-room work, and, with some modifications, it was ventured upon. It was useless to give the children the daily paper to search, as the startling headlines of some murder or fray was sure to be the first to meet their gaze and absorb their attention. Nor did books of short stories serve the purpose any better. No live boys like goody-goody books, and the kind that most frequently interests them is apt to have its interest centered on some action of questionable character. I remember one volume of short stories, bright and funny, every page of which the boys seemed to enjoy, yet almost every bit of fun was based on a trick or practical joke.

The reading of such stories so lowers the child's idea of square dealing and diminishes his keenness in distinguishing between right and wrong as to make the ethical problem much harder to solve. There is a difference between caution and cowardice, between bravery and daring, and just that same difference may be found between certain kinds of joking, yet it is difficult to make the children see this, as I found in my own experience with the stories before mentioned. To the questions, "Do you think that was fair? Was it honest?" the answer constantly given was, "No! it was funny." And the result seemed, in their minds, to justify the deeds. Such stories I deem pernicious and "I'll none of them."

Papers and books thus proving broken reeds in the children's hands, it only remains for the teacher himself to search for the brave deeds or kindly acts and bring them to the notice of the class, always bidding the pupils watch for opportunities to go and do likewise. As it is not the *human* alone that shows bravery, the mother-hen defending her chicks from the hawk and the bird her nestlings from the fowler may be brought to the attention of the children as examples, and the thoughts thus turned and the hands thus trained to tenderness toward animals will never be rough to man.

These were the lessons. What was the result? That we have yet to learn. The constant dropping that wears away a stone makes no daily reports of its labors nor puts in evidence the amount of roughness which has disappeared in the course of the hour, and these paragraphs were not meant to be records of successes only, but of attempts as well. Along such a line of work there can be no defeats.

" We know, far off in eternal years
Its echoes will ring upon our ears."

L. MOFFAT,
Instructor in the California Institution, Berkeley, California.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Arkansas Institute.—Among the items of the State appropriation bill this year was one of \$800 for defraying the necessary expenses of pupils from this School attending Gallaudet College.

Chicago Vacation Schools.—Three Vacation Schools for the deaf were carried on in Chicago last summer under the general direction of Miss McCowen. To meet the expenses, \$127.80 were raised by contributions and an entertainment. The instruction was given by self-sacrificing teachers of the Chicago Day Schools and members of the training class of the McCowen Oral School. The results were so satisfactory that it is hoped the work may be regularly continued in the future.

Clarke School.—A new gymnasium, two stories in height and 50 x 70 feet on the ground, is to be erected. The first floor will contain two bowling-alleys, and separate cloak-rooms, examining-rooms, and lavatories for boys and girls; the second floor will have all the apparatus necessary for a children's gymnasium. The apparatus will be so arranged that it can be easily moved, rendering the room available for an assembly hall. The building is the gift of Mr. and Mrs. E. W. Gilmore.

Cleveland School.—The School has removed from its old inconvenient quarters in a down-town district to 1304 Willson Avenue, which is in a pleasant residence portion of the city. The present building contains, besides well-equipped school-rooms and office, a drawing-room, library, dining-rooms, and kitchen. On the third floor are two large play-rooms for use on rainy days. The lot is a large one, and affords a grassy, shady place for play and also space for garden-making. Manual training will be provided next year for both boys and girls. Miss Katherine King will continue to be principal, assisted by Misses Fanny Bierbower, Estelle Stevenson, Ellen E. Taylor, and Minnie E. Morris.

Derby (England) Institution.—The publication of the monthly periodical *Our Deaf and Dumb* has been suspended

for a year at least, on account of the pressure of other duties upon Dr. Roe's time.

Gallaudet College.—On Presentation Day, May 10, 1899, Mr. George V. Bath, Mr. George A. Brooks, Mr. Joseph B. Bumgardner, Mr. William H. Davis, Miss Sadie E. Griffis, Mr. Albert W. Ohlemacher, Mr. Daniel Picard, Miss Sarah A. Rogers, Mr. Walter B. Rosson, Mr. Roy J. Stewart, Mr. Asa A. Stutsman, Miss Edith Vandegrift, and Mr. George F. Wills, members of the Senior class, were presented as candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Arts; Mr. Arnold H. Payne, B. A., Mr. Arnold Shreve, B. A., Miss Frances K. Bell, M. S., and Mr. Alvin E. Pope, B. A., Normal Fellows, as candidates for the degree of Master of Arts; and Miss Louise S. Robinson and Miss Hattie M. Bear, Normal Students, for normal certificates. The announcement was made of the conferring of the degree of Master of Arts, in course, upon Mr. John E. Crane and Mr. James I. Sansom, and the honorary degree of Master of Arts upon Mr. Samuel Johnson, Superintendent of the South Australian Institution. The announcement was also made of the resignation of Prof. J. W. Chickering, who has held the chair of Natural Science in this College for twenty-nine years, and of the appointment of Mr. Herbert E. Day, of the Kentucky School, as his successor.

A beautiful reading desk for the chapel platform, presented by the class of 1893 as a memorial of their beloved classmate, Harvey D. De Long, was unveiled. The presentation address was delivered by Mr. John A. McIlvaine, a member of the class.

Besides the orations of members of the Senior class, addresses were also delivered by Mr. Arnold H. Paine, a Normal Fellow; the Hon. John Hay, Secretary of State; Mr. Lars A. Havstad, of Christiania, Norway, a highly educated deaf gentleman who is visiting American schools for the deaf; and President Gallaudet.

Georgia School.—The publication of an eight page semi-monthly paper, called the *School Helper*, has been begun. It is neatly printed and well edited.

Indiana Institution.—The last legislature made an appro-

priation of \$4,500 to build a cottage for the residence of the superintendent.

Manchester (England) School.—Mr. Colville Patterson, a teacher in this School for nearly forty years, died recently at the age of fifty-four. He was a son of Mr. Andrew Patterson, who was for nearly fifty years connected with the School as teacher and head master. He is spoken of in the *British Messenger* and *Monthly* as possessed of a liberal mind, ardent love of his profession, and deep religious feeling. He had recently published a catalogue of the Arnold Library for the National Association of Teachers of the Deaf, by whom he had been elected honorary librarian. Until further notice communications relating to the library should be addressed to Mr. Bessant, head master of the Manchester School.

Missouri School.—Mr. S. C. Bright has been compelled to give up work for the present on account of his health. He has gone to San Antonio, Texas. It is hoped he may be able to return to his post in the autumn.

Nebraska Institute.—Mr. J. H. Hadkinson, Vice-President of the State Horticultural Society and formerly instructor in horticulture in the State University, has been appointed to take charge of the work in agriculture, horticulture, and floriculture.

A committee of the legislature has reported that the charges which led to Mr. Gillespie's removal from the office of superintendent were unfounded, and that his administration was excellent in all respects.

Ohio Day Schools.—Mr. J. W. Jones, Superintendent of the State Institution at Columbus, has been appointed official inspector of all day-schools for the deaf in the State. The effect of such an appointment will doubtless be to raise the standard of the day-schools and to bring them into closer relationship with the State Institution.

Paris (France) National Institution.—A course of instruction for adult deaf persons, including articulation, speech-reading, language, arithmetic, writing, etc., has been authorized by the government. Instruction is given at the Institution on several evenings of each week from 8.30 to 10 o'clock.

Mr. G. Bertoux, for the past fifteen years an able and zealous member of the corps of instruction, has recently died. Last year he established the periodical *Annales Françaises des Sourds-Muets*, but was obliged to give it up on account of his failing health. He was also the author of a manual for parents of the deaf called *Livre des Mères*, and a text-book entitled *Séries de leçons de choses*.

Pennsylvania Institution.—Mr. F. W. Booth, who has been connected with the Institution for sixteen years, first as teacher and later as principal of the Manual and Intermediate Oral Departments, has resigned his position to become General Secretary and Treasurer of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf and editor of a bi-monthly periodical which is to be published by that Association. Mr. Booth's residence will probably continue to be Mt. Airy, and the printing will be done in the Institution printing office.

The constant inquiry for further information concerning the "Five-Slate Method" of teaching language has led Miss Barry to prepare a full exposition of the method which will soon be published in book form with numerous illustrations.

Rhode Island School.—Miss Frances Wood has resigned her position as first assistant, and after this year will not teach. Miss Allis Townsend will also retire at the close of the present term.

St. Francis Xavier's School.—The *Silent Worker* for May mentions a school for the deaf carried on by "Mission Helpers" under the direction of the Convent of the Sacred Heart, 412 West Biddle street, Baltimore, Maryland. While the headquarters of the mission work is at the Convent, the school for the deaf is at No. 9 Pleasant street. An attendance of 25 pupils is reported. The sisters in charge of the school also give religious instruction to the Catholic adult deaf of the city.

Streator Day-School.—An oral day-school was opened last autumn at Streator, Illinois. The teacher is Miss Clara Brown, who received her training at the Clarke School. Seven pupils are enrolled and five in attendance.

Texas School.—Miss Addie Belle Faubion, a teacher in the

School for the past four years, died at her home in Leander, Texas, April 3, 1899. Before being appointed teacher she was a monitress. Her associates say of her that she fulfilled each trust with a high sense of her responsibility, performing every duty with painstaking fidelity and ability.

Wisconsin Day-Schools.—In the Winter number of *The Little Deaf Child*, 1899, Mr. Robert C. Spencer states that there are now twelve oral day-schools for the deaf in Wisconsin, with a total enrollment of 140 pupils, 24 teachers, and 6 normal students. In addition to the schools reported in the *Annals* for January last, he names schools at Green Bay, Appleton, Black River Falls, and Superior.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Proceedings of the Fifteenth Meeting of the Convention.—The Proceedings of the Fifteenth Meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, held at the Ohio Institution, Columbus, Ohio, from July 28 to August 2, 1898, have been printed and bound at the Government Printing Office, Washington, making a handsome octavo volume of 311 pages. The book is embellished with pictures of the Ohio Institution, the members of the Convention, and the members of the Conference of Superintendents and Principals. An Index of Authors and Speakers and of Subjects, prepared by Professor Percival Hall of Washington, one of the Assistant Secretaries, adds to the value of the work. The Proceedings are furnished free to members of the Convention; to non members the price is two dollars.

Sixth Summer Meeting of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech.—This meeting will be held at the Clarke School, Northampton, Massachusetts, during the week June 22 to 28, inclusive. The capacity of the buildings occupied by the school being too limited to provide comfortable accommodations for the number usually attending these meetings, board and lodgings have been secured in boarding houses near the school and in hotels. In the boarding houses

Wanted, by a trained Articulation teacher of some years experience, a position as governess to a deaf child. Good references. Address A. Z., care of the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

Mr. J. Heidsiek's "Hearing Deaf-Mutes. A Contribution toward the Elucidation of the Question of Methods," translated from the German by George W. Veditz, M. A., and published in the *Annals* for April, June, and September of last year, has been reprinted in pamphlet form. Copies may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at 25 cents each, postage included.

"FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH." A course of systematic instruction in language, in four volumes, by Caroline C. Sweet. Price, \$3.84 per dozen. Single copy, 40c.

"STORY READER, No. 1." Sixty short stories prepared for young pupils, compiled by Ida V. Hammond. Price, \$3.84 per dozen. Single copy, 40c.

"STORY READER, No. 2." Short stories prepared for young pupils, compiled by Ida V. Hammond. Price, \$4 20 per dozen. Single copy, 45c.

"TALKS AND STORIES." Contains nearly a hundred short stories and seventy-five conversations for practice in language, prepared by Wm. G. Jenkins, M. A. Price, \$6.00 per dozen. Single copy, 60c.

"BITS OF HISTORY." One hundred stories gathered from United States History, compiled by John E. Crane, M. A. Price, \$9.00 per dozen. Single copy, 90c.

"A PRIMER OF ENGLISH AND AMERICAN LITERATURE." By Abel S. Clark, M. A., with 25 portraits of authors. Price, \$7.80 per dozen. Single copy, 75c.

"WORDS AND PHRASES." Examples of the correct English usage, by William G. Jenkins, M. A. Price, \$6.00 per dozen.

"STORIES FOR LANGUAGE STUDY."—Adapted to pupils of the third or fourth grade, compiled by Jane Bartlett Kellogg. Price, \$4.20 per dozen.

Published by the American School, at Hartford, for the Deaf, Hartford, Connecticut.

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FACIAL SPEECH-READING.*

IN proceeding now to give the external characteristic features presented by *consonants*, the stopped or shut sounds more especially, I must again revert to the differences existing between *media* and *tenuis*, already mentioned. Of importance to us are (1) the difference in the consistence of the parts which make the stoppage or closure and the forms and modes of contact thus assumed by the mouth organs (Thausing), and (2) the nature of the release of contact, because both of these differences plainly manifest themselves in visible positions and movements.

In regard to the differences first named, the statement I have already made holds good in general: In the *mediæ* larger surfaces part from one another than in the *tenuis*. That these diverse forms of contact are recognizable through external indications is evidenced by the fact that the lower jaw, in order more readily to secure for the parts in question greater surfaces of contact, must assume a more elevated position for the *mediæ* than is requisite for the *tenuis*.

That the differences in releasing the closure are really visible can certainly not be questioned.

* Continued from the June number of the *Annals*, page 285.

B and P.

Inasmuch as the lips when pronouncing B are of a tender consistence, their muscles must not appear especially tense. In fact we see, in the B closure, that the lips are almost in the passive position they assume for A (as in *mama*). The edges of the lips do not press against the teeth; in front we see the wide red surface of the lips; and from the side, the conical shape of the *atrium*. In pronouncing P, on the other hand, the lips are pressed somewhat together, and their edges as a rule are incurved, so that they are drawn against the teeth, and by means of this point of support the pressure is promoted (Merkel). Through this contraction of the muscles the P receives a hard consistence. In contrast to B, we thus see from the front the red portion of the lips narrowed in P; while, from the side, we observe the lips so drawn against the teeth that the conical form of the *atrium* entirely disappears. Although this shows that the point of contact in B is very different from that of P, the fact is nevertheless further emphasized by the circumstance that, in pronouncing P, the lower jaw maintains very nearly its passive position, while in B it is raised somewhat in order to favor the enlargement of the surface of contact. In contrast to B, we thus in P see, in front, the chin elevated; on the side, the lower jaw takes a higher position; finally, the third notable characteristic is the mode of explosion. While in B we see, in front, a forward* rolling and then a parting and raising of the lips, we observe in P that the closure is explosively opened. As a consequence of this different mode of explosion, we observe, also, that the lower jaw makes far less of a downward movement in B than it does in P. A side view gives us this movement more plainly; and

*In pronouncing B, the main direction of the movement is forward, while in P it is downward.

what emphasizes this difference between B and P still more is the fact that, previous to the explosive opening of the lip closure for P, a slight inflation of the cheeks takes place. I am of the opinion that this feature, in connection with the side-view characteristics already described, amply suffices to distinguish B from P, even when the mouth is covered. A practical test will give proof of this apparently bold assertion.

D and T.

While, at the point of closure in the first articulation division, the *media* is clearly distinguishable from the *tenuis*, this is changed more and more the farther back the closure takes place. Practice will here have to contribute the most towards its acquirement. Nevertheless, from the point of view here indicated there will be ample criteria for the eye to enable one to base the practice upon physiological grounds, and avoid the necessity of leaving expertness in speech-reading to blind chance. I would further remark that my statement refers to Brücke's so-called palatal or alveolar D and T, as it is this which is almost exclusively spoken here in Northern Germany, while the people of Central Germany almost universally form the so-called dorsals (Merkel). The manifestations, however, are readily transferred from one to the other.

The difference in consistence shows itself in this way: the tongue seen from in front, between the two rows of teeth, is less visible in D than in T. In uttering the latter, the tongue must take on a harder consistence, in consequence of which its under surface is more exposed than in the corresponding *media*. This of course is not visible from a side view; but, on the other hand, the effect of the greater surface of contact shows itself quite clearly by the elevated position of the lower jaw.

While in T—in which the tongue, board-like, is extended

from back and low towards front and high, and only touches with its edge the articulating position—the lower jaw remains in its position of inaction, or, in a more decided utterance, is moved downward, in D it must elevate itself. For here the place of articulation is touched with a flattening of the point of the tongue, and in order to facilitate this contact it is necessary that the lower jaw elevate itself from its quiescent position. Of course we see this changed position of the lower jaw also in front, but not as clearly as from the side.

Furthermore, the difference in the explosion is mainly rendered observable by the movement of the lower jaw, which in D is hardly discernible, but in T appears quite excessive. While this, from a side view, is only apparent by the movement of the lower jaw, it is, in front, presented to us by the distance from each other of the two rows of teeth. In addition, however, we also observe clearly that the explosion, in uttering T, causes the tongue to be thrown downward, while in uttering D its motion is backward. This causes us also to observe from the side that, in consequence of the muscle movement, the angle between the lower jaw and the front throat-surface is blunted and more rounded in D, whereas in T the angle remains the same, and we only observe upon the side of the throat just previous to the explosion a slight fluctuation of the skin, like that manifested in P upon the cheek surface.

We are to consider, furthermore, whether D and T are also distinguishable when the mouth is covered. Here, too, after the careful and repeated observations I have made, I must assert that they are. I need only refer to the diverse positions and movements of the lower jaw, as also to the angle of the throat and lower jaw, to prove this assertion. Nevertheless, as I have already observed, it is rather difficult to attain perfect speech-reading in the T genus. Practice must here serve as a substitute for the readier visibility of externally distinguishing features.

G and K.

While in the T genus the point of the tongue lies back of the upper row of teeth, in the K genus it lies back of the lower row. This being understood, the G distinguishes itself from the K, in the first place, by the consistence of the articulating organ—in this instance the tongue. Thus, while in K, owing to its rigidity, one sees the entire ridge of the tongue exposed, in G one sees only a small portion of it. The area of contact is much larger in G than in K, where there is only a faint line of contact. In front this difference is made visible in the manner just described in speaking of the consistence of the articulating parts. In addition, we see the lower jaw more elevated in G than in K. In the former the jaw supports the securing of a larger area of contact, while in K, owing to the rigidity of the tongue, the jaw is rather thrust downward. In general, therefore, in front we see the two rows of teeth wider apart in K than in G; and on the side we observe the lower jaw higher in G than in K, being somewhat depressed in the latter. The angle of the lower jaw and throat is drawn upward in both sounds, but more so in G than in K.

Finally, the difference in the process of releasing the closure asserts and manifests itself externally. In G we see in front a depression of the ridge of the tongue, and in K, a lowering and thrusting forward of it. This is why the movement of the lower jaw is greater in K; it is noticeable in front by the movement of the two rows of teeth and the chin; it is noticeable from the side upon the lower rim of the lower jaw, and especially upon the angle of the lower jaw and throat. In K a fluctuating movement of the skin (Merkel) is clearly visible upon the lateral surface of the neck, previous and subsequent to the explosion, while nothing of the kind is observable in G. The movement of the angle of the lower jaw and throat is greater in K than in G.

Fricative or Spirant Sounds.

As in the stopped sounds we have distinguished hard and soft consonants, we can also make a like distinction in the fricative sounds; since, for the purpose of facial speech-reading, the ordinary distinction between voiceless and vocal fricative sounds is immaterial. The hardness of the fricative organs is equally visible with that of the stopped sounds; for instance, we can easily convince ourselves, by means of the eye, how in F and P the lips assume a far more firm consistence than in W (English V) and B, where they are "more or less soft and pliable," says Thausing. Apart from the consistence, consideration must also be given to the size of the limiting surfaces; these, for instance, are considerably larger in F than in W. Finally, the transition from F to A is totally different in appearance from that of W to A; the first named, owing to the stronger pressure of air, produces a more passive impression, while the latter shows an active muscle movement. Taking all into consideration, we have in the fricatives the same points of view by which we distinguish between the voiceless and vocalized, just as we distinguished the *tenuēs* from the *mediæ*.

F and W (English V).

With F we see the upper lip elevated and made tense, so that its lower edge is brought up to a level with the crown line of the upper row of teeth. The two rows of teeth separate somewhat, owing to a backward and downward movement of the lower jaw. This is done in order to enable the lower lip to be curled inward, and over the lower row of teeth. Thus it is that the lower lip comes to lie quite loosely against the upper row of teeth. In W (English V), however, the two rows of teeth only come to be separated from one another about the same distance

they are in E (English A); the lower jaw therefore takes a more elevated position than in F, and so facilitates the formation of a larger surface for the walls of the aperture. The lips are not quite as tense as in F; they take a position similar to that in A (as in *mama*), only the lower lip approaches the lower row of teeth somewhat, but is not drawn inwardly so much as in F. Thus "the length of the mouth aperture is diminished, and the corners of the mouth are brought towards each other," says Merkel. In F, on the other hand, the mouth aperture retains its ordinary length.

In front, therefore, we see, when F is uttered, the red exposure of the lips lessened, the chin lower and the corners of the mouth in their usual position; whereas in W (English V) the red exposure of the lower lip is rather broadened, the chin is elevated, and the corners of the mouth are somewhat contracted. A side view reveals the fact that in F the *atrium* nearly disappears, while in W it is preserved and the lips retain their ordinary shovel-like form. While in F the downward and backward movement of the lower jaw is mainly noticeable, in W the jaw is raised in addition to moving backward as has been already explained. In the transition to a vowel, we see in W a forward trend, which in F is still more decided. Of course the backward movements of the lower jaw are observable alike from a side view and when the mouth is covered, although at first it is somewhat difficult to distinguish a voiced fricative from a vowel.

SS and S.*

Merkel says: "The easiest and most common way to form S is as follows: The two jaws are so brought together that the two rows of the teeth are near each

* The German SS has no exact equivalent sound in English, but will be readily recognized upon closely observing the remarks here made.

other, or, if they had previously been separated, they are brought towards each other in such a manner that the uncovered crowns or edges of both lines of teeth lie in one and the same horizontal line, and the edges of the lower incisors take a position in the rear of the upper ones, although, more especially if the S sound is less prominent, the edges of the upper incisors stand off a little from the lower."

In front, we see in SS the two rows of teeth quite close to each other, but in S they stand slightly apart from each other in such manner that the lower teeth take position in the rear of the upper ones. We also invariably see that, when the lower jaw shifts from its passive position into that of S, the chin projects. Most frequently it will also be observed that, in assuming the S position, a broadening out of the mouth aperture takes place. This, of course, is plainly visible from the side, where we observe a backward movement of the corners of the mouth, and, at the same time, a forward movement of the lower jaw—a movement which, in the vocalized S, is coupled with a yet more decided upward movement of the lower jaw than is the case in voiceless SS.

These characteristic features are sufficiently discernible even when the mouth is covered. Altogether, the S of itself is easily read, although the difference between the vocalized and voiceless S is not near as pronounced as that between F and W. For purposes of speech-reading, however, it matters not whether the vocalized S is distinguished from the unvocalized or not.

*CH and J.**

It is very difficult to distinguish these two sounds from one another or from others. The place of articulation is located nearly where the vocal tube is contracted in form-

* The German CH has no exact equivalent in English; J is the English consonant Y.

ing the vowel I (English E). It is true that in uttering CH "the tongue is also drawn upwards and backwards toward the soft palate" (Merkel). This also compels the lower jaw (which, we have already seen, retreats upwards) to elevate itself even more. It is from this position of the lower jaw that we must learn to read these two consonants. These two positions of the lower jaw can, naturally, be best observed from a side view. It will also be seen that the *atrium* is so extremely diminished as almost to disappear, which constitutes another similarity to the I (English E) position, and is caused by the backward movement of the lower jaw; however, the corners of the mouth are not drawn up as high as in the I position. In the utterance of I, the two rows of teeth, viewed from the front, are further apart than in CH or J. Hence, in the utterance of the word "*ich*," we see the two rows of teeth further apart in I than in CH. Neither is the mouth aperture as broad in CH as it is in I, which difference, of course, is observed only in a specially distinct utterance. I do not consider it very essential for the purpose of speech-reading to be able to distinguish CH from J.

SCH (English SH).

This is another easily read consonant, alike in front or from the side, and also with covered mouth. Its articulate characteristics are clearly seen. The question which concerns us is whether the point where the tongue (hyoid) bone is located (the angle between the lower jaw and the neck) is altered by the raising and projecting forward of the lower jaw (Merkel). This alteration makes a characteristic not to be undervalued, more especially when, with the mouth covered, one compares from the side the difference in the movements peculiar to SCH and U. But these movements can hardly, even remotely, be considered as much a part of the characteristic features of SCH as is the peculiar change effected in

the *atrium*. These changes, or, better, positions, furthermore, deviate but slightly from the quiescent position; the lips, on the other hand, are opened and curled outwards, thus being drawn away from the incisors and their alveoli. At the same time "the two corners of the mouth are elevated somewhat, and the whole mouth aperture generally assumes a slightly higher position than is the case in a state of quiescence;" furthermore, this lifting and curling of the lips cause the corners of the mouth to approach each other. In this manner the outer border of the red part of the lips assumes an approximately square or right-angled form, having blunted corners; the inner border, at the same time, forms a triangular orifice, whose apex lies in the middle of the red portion of the lower lip.

While we can observe all this with the greatest ease from the front, there are also presented from the side, in the change of form assumed by the *atrium*, distinctive features which we instantly recognize. Although we may have become familiar with divers vowels in uttering which the *atrium* is projected forward, yet in all of these the shape assumed by the *atrium* approximates that of a section of a cone, while in SCH the shape is more that of a hollow cylinder. And furthermore, upon closer observation, we recognize that the lower jaw, as has already been said, is projected forward, and that the angle between the lower jaw and the front surface of the throat is more obtuse. This, taken in connection with the peculiar forward stretching of the cheek surface (a difficult thing to describe, but readily recognized), presents ample characteristics for the recognition of SCH, even when the mouth is covered, and for its distinction from the vowels above mentioned.

L.

Entirely isolated from all other sounds of speech stands the sound of L. It belongs properly neither to the stopped

nor to the fricative sounds, nor to any other class of speech tones. Should it be thought that its external characteristics would therefore be the more readily apparent, a glance into the physiology of speech would suffice to prove this idea apparently erroneous. But it is only apparently so. The external characteristics of no sound have been so surprisingly neglected as those of L. Not only in front, but from the side, and even with covered mouth, it can be read with certainty.

In front we observe that the teeth stand apart somewhat more than in the quiescent position of the lower jaw. We furthermore see that since this deviation from the quiescent position is really considerable, the tongue, cone-like, (partaking of the parrot tongue-form) is pressed against the back of the upper row of teeth. Owing to its very hard consistence in L, the tongue thus depresses with its root the bottom of the mouth, and we see a bulging out of that portion of the arch of the chin which is formed by the soft parts between the two lower jaw-bones.

At the same time, we observe that, both in consequence of the depression of the lower jaw and the projection of the sides of the mouth, the cheeks appear flattened.

In the side view, we recognize L chiefly by the vaulted or arched bottom of the mouth, the simultaneous backward pressure of the lower jaw, and the increased obtuseness of the above indicated angle. All of these manifestations are also discernible when the mouth is covered.

The Nasal Tones.

The nasal tones are distinguished from all others by the fact that their emission occurs through the nose instead of the mouth. In general, their articulating place (*locus articulationis*) is identical with that of the stopped sounds; nevertheless there are some additional peculiarities to be observed.

M has the same articulating place as that of the P genus; it differs, however, from the latter in this, that the lips, or rather their red surfaces, are incurved. M therefore, in front, is distinguishable from P by the fact that it displays a narrower lip-border; and, from the side, by the distinctly observable narrowing of the space between the lips and teeth.

N, in its external manifestation, takes an intermediate position between L and T, when the sound is viewed from the front. The rows of teeth assume about a medium distance from each other; therefore, when viewed from the side, the lower jaw also assumes an intermediate position. On the whole, the position approaches nearer that of T, only that the two rows of teeth, as seen in front, appear farther apart; that the lower jaw, seen from the side, lies lower downward; and furthermore, that, when the transition to the vowel is made, an entirely different kind of a movement is to be noted.

NG, finally, in its position is externally hardly recognizable, principally owing to a lack of all external characteristics, despite the opening of the mouth, which corresponds nearly to the quiescent position of A, D, and H. The formation of the NG sound makes this self-evident, as it is effected solely by the relaxing of the soft palate.

Some Important Groups of Sounds.

In reviewing the order of the sounds thus far named, we constantly find three main places of articulation. The first involves the lips; the second the teeth, the third the palate.

The group F, M, P, B (Labials).

While in F, viewed from the front, the *atrium*, especially its lower portion, is considerably shortened, the sound of M shows an evenly compressed lip-border. The width of

the red portion of the lips is only slightly narrower at the corners of the mouth than at the middle. On the whole, the red portion of the lips appears considerably narrower. In P it is also narrowed; but midway of the mouth its breadth considerably exceeds that at the corners of the mouth, although the real place of pressure certainly lies more towards the middle. In B, finally, the red portion of the lips appears to its full extent.

Viewed from the side, we observe in F, on the part of the lower jaw, a considerable movement to the rear, while in M it plainly moves decidedly forward. But even here the borders of the lips are curled inward. This disappears in P; nevertheless, the lips continue to be forcibly pressed against the teeth. In B, finally, the lips move sufficiently forward to assume their natural quiescent position.

•
The Group L, N, T, D, S (Dentals).

This group, in a front view, shows us the distinctive features of the tongue constantly lowering itself, and the rows of teeth gradually approaching each other in such a manner that in L the aperture between the teeth is greatest; in S it is least, and the tongue is lowest. A side view shows this change most effectually by the altered position of the lower jaw. While in L it is depressed, it gradually elevates and projects itself, until in S the crowns of the teeth stand directly opposite to one another.

The Group CH, J (English Y), G, K (Palatals).

This group does not display so regularly graded a succession of external manifestations; and it can be arranged in this order only when the position of the lower jaw is observed from the side. In CH its position is highest; in K lowest.

If, however, we take a front view of the group, we shall

soon find that they must be arranged as follows : J, CH, G, K ; for in J the corners of the mouth are farthest apart ; in K, on the other hand, the aperture widens, and the corners of the mouth are closest to each other.

R.

It is with great difficulty that we can read this sound. It is recognized most readily at the close of a syllable. In this case it is generally pronounced like the vowel A. The syllable *er* sounds *ea* ; the syllable *der, dea* ; *mir, mia*, etc. When a word commences with R, no definite feature of recognition can be given. On the whole, only the following is to be noted and especially practised. If R is uttered as a tongue R, it may be confounded with D, T, N, and especially with L. If, however, R is uttered as a palatal R, it will, of course, easily be confounded with the sounds of the third articulation division, particularly with G and J. These hints must suffice to impress the fact that R must be practised in contrast with the consonants above named.

This closes the description of the external characteristics of individual speech sounds. It remains as a matter of supplemental proof to add some remarks.

Should it be thought desirable to test further what has been said, it would assuredly be an error to commence doing so with one's self. Due objectivity in judging of external characteristics of speech sounds, by the observation of one's own person, is rarely preserved ; of this I have satisfied myself innumerable times.

An excellent means of determining and fixing the objective characteristics of individual sounds is given us by instantaneous photography. It was utilized in 1885 for this purpose, and its importance and the results attained were explicitly stated in an article by Félix Hément,

entitled: "Les progrès récents dans l'enseignement des Sourd-muets," in the periodical *La Nature* for 1885, p. 168. I have myself given this subject special attention during the past year or more, and in time we shall certainly achieve interesting results in this line. With ordinary instantaneous photography, however, it is extremely difficult to photograph a sound singly apart from its sound combination in word or sentence; it requires much practise and great skill to close the shutter at the right moment. A more convenient way would be to use the "series" apparatus, which enables one to take a series of instantaneous photographs. Such apparatus, however, is very expensive and beyond the means of single individuals. The apparatus would have to be of such a character that at least twenty negatives could be taken within a second. Notwithstanding this, I considered the subject of such importance that I, myself, consumed a considerable portion of my time in endeavoring to solve it. Meanwhile an article was making the rounds of the press, inspired by an article in the *Figaro*. I extract the following from the *Photographische Mittheilungen* of March 1, 1892, p. 362:

In the *Figaro* of February 2, 1892, under the heading "*Au jour le jour*," there is a noteworthy article, by Guy Tomel, which prompts me to offer the following observations:

The fact that every motion consists of a series of movements, or phenomena, which succeed one another so rapidly that, to our vision, they appear as a single motion, may be assumed as already known. Our eye is only capable of fixing, as it were, the pictures of passing objects, whether singly or collectively, when at a visible distance they are directly in front.

Instantaneous photography, at present, has arrived at such a high state of perfection that skilfully constructed apparatus enables us to fix, in the fraction of a second, the individual phases of an apparently single movement. The resulting prints are then pasted successively equidistant upon a strip of paper, the ends of which are so joined as to form a continuous circle. This picture-circle is then placed in a rapid-vision apparatus, the upper part of which is likewise circular (but wider than the picture cylinder, and provided with slits), and placed on a revolving

disc. When revolving, one observes, through one of the slits, the exact succession of the apparent motions of the photographed object.

According to the writer in the *Figaro*, Messrs. Demeny and Marey, of the *Collège de France*, have availed themselves of this process to photograph the lip movements of a person speaking; and, as just indicated, have united these pictures in a rapid-vision instrument such as above described, for the purpose of enabling deaf-mutes, by imitating the apparent lip movements thus presented to their view, to communicate with any and all persons, without resorting to the cumbersome language of signs, foreign to the majority of people—certainly one of the greatest of services that photographic art could render to suffering mankind! Our unfortunate fellow-men are thus enabled, virtually, to practise every movement, and by means of intelligent direction to attain the highest grade of distinct enunciation; and it is self-evident that thus an immense amount of time and pains will be saved, as even the most patient and devoted of teachers would find it impossible constantly (even voicelessly) to undergo such exacting speech exercises with their pupils, to say nothing of precision.

To Messrs. Demeny and Marey is due the credit of having given the first impetus in this direction towards the amelioration of human suffering. It would be a great satisfaction, however, to the writer of this, should these observations of his contribute to animating the proper parties to institute diligent tests as to whether or not these achievements of instantaneous photography can be rendered serviceable to the pupils of deaf-mute institutions.

Every instructor of the deaf will at once realize that the demands here made upon the achievements of instantaneous photography are excessive. Let us assume that in moderately rapid speech twelve sounds are uttered in a second;* this would hardly enable any one to speak and consequently photograph more than two words per second. In doing so, however, it is absolutely necessary that the instantaneous process seize the most characteristic positions of the sounds. It is well known that instantaneous pictures can be taken with a flash-light in

* This assumption is rather low. I have made numerous counts upon myself and others and found that when speaking moderately fast 1,200 to 1,500 sounds per minute are produced, which would be 20 to 25 sounds per second. It is, however, only with the best of series apparatus that 20 to 25 pictures can be taken per second, which would be necessary if we desired to divide ordinary speech into its elementary sounds.

$\frac{1}{1000}$ th of a second. For speech-action flashes of $\frac{1}{500}$ th to $\frac{1}{300}$ th of a second would suffice. Let us now assume that we wish to photograph the word "übermorgen." The word represents ten characteristic positions of the organs. Let us assume that the stop is correctly lifted at the beginning of the ü; we will then, considering the comparative duration of the utterance of ii (provided the regular release of the stop is made), secure possibly two pictures, whereas, in view of the rapid transient process in utterance, it may occur that just at the cut off, or stop movement, no picture is obtained. I will, however, assume that a flash-light negative was obtained at the very moment when the most characteristic feature of the sound presented itself. We nevertheless shall not obtain the valuable transitions from sound to sound. As I have already mentioned, we would need to have an apparatus which would give us at least twenty pictures in a second. Such an apparatus, however, to accomplish its purpose, would be extremely expensive.

Assuming, however, that we had such an instrument and could take twenty pictures of a word having ten distinct sounds, it would, after all, be only one word! Would it then be really anything of an exercise for a deaf-mute to continually whirl around a single word in a so-called Stroboscope? Would he thus learn to read speech? Certainly not. He would have to take a series of word-pictures for every word—a kind of Stroboscopic Dictionary; only then could it be said that the desired achievements of the apparatus were attained. In my opinion, instantaneous or flash-like pictures of single sounds would far better attain the object; and I have utilized such instantaneous pictures for the purpose indicated.

If then we would really utilize the Stroboscope or Zoötrope for this purpose, a large number of pictures of individual sounds might be procured and kept on hand to enable one to construct certain sound-pictures for given

purposes: for instance, if it were desirable to present the word "Schokolade," the pictures might be thus arranged:

(Sch) (o) (o) (k) (o) (o) (l) (a) (a) (d) (e).

For the three vowels, we should need to insert two of the same vowel pictures, as the vowels consume greater time in utterance than the consonants.

Some experiments I have been diligently making in this direction for more than a year are not yet concluded. Possibly I may present at a future time some of the sound-pictures I have secured by instantaneous photography.*

If we would, with the naked eye, observe in minutest detail the external characteristics of speech-sounds, there is in my opinion but one way; and that is, while listening, carefully to observe persons who are speaking to us unconstrainedly and who do not know that we are observing them. We must, however, in observing the external characteristics of any particular sound, concentrate our attention, at the time, solely upon that individual one. In listening, it will very often occur that, shortly previous to its advent, we shall know what sound is to be uttered, and can therefore quickly concentrate attention upon it. Of course, the observing of any one person and one single observation will not suffice to fix in our mind the external characteristic of a sound. We need frequently to identify the sound as seen in one person, and then to verify it by observations upon other persons. In doing this, an accurate knowledge of speech-physiology is necessary. In this manner, the above data were obtained three years ago, and their correctness has since been verified. The really striking success which has thus often attended my father's efforts and my own has convinced me of their

* Dr. Gutzman's Stroboscope, known also as the Zoëtrope, consists of an apparatus constructed upon the principle of the Kinetoscope, in which the movements of the mouth when uttering any letter or combination of letters are shown by Kinetographic pictures.

correctness. Incidentally let me cite in evidence the fact that a gentleman who became deaf after the twelfth year of his age attained such skill as to enable him, while in the parquet of a theatre, to follow, word by word, the conversation of two ladies in an adjacent box. And a young lady, who had almost entirely lost her hearing power, by this process attained so great a proficiency in speech-reading that the examining aurist (Professor Dr. Trautmann) could not at first be made to believe that the lady had absolutely not heard a word of all he had spoken to her. I am also glad to be able to have had an opportunity to demonstrate, at the first medical clinic of Privy Counsellor Professor Dr. Leyden, in the Auditorium at Berlin, the possibility of a deaf-mute's thus faultlessly reading sounds and words solely from the general facial indications, even when the mouth was covered.

DR. HERM. GUTZMANN,
Berlin, Germany.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

DR. BLAKE'S LECTURES.

MUCH has been done for the deaf, but much more remains to be done, and, in order to promote their welfare during their school life and afterwards, a new movement was set on foot in Boston in August, 1894, when, at the suggestion of the Principal of the Horace Mann School, a number of parents of deaf children met together for the purpose of forming an association in the interests of deaf children, especially those attending that school.

Some of the objects of the Boston Parents' Education Association for Deaf Children are to encourage home instruction ; to aid schools for the deaf in the city of Boston ; to help deaf children continue their education in schools

and colleges for hearing persons; to aid them in acquiring a practical knowledge of useful trades and business; to assist them in obtaining remunerative employment; to bring them into more extensive social relations with hearing persons, and to employ such other means for their advancement as may be deemed advisable.

Under the auspices of this Association, Dr. Clarence J. Blake, Professor of Otology in the Harvard Medical School, is giving a series of lectures upon "The Causes of Deaf-Mutism, and the Education of the Deaf." Four lectures have already been given, and the course will be resumed in the autumn. The lectures are given in the hall of the Horace Mann School, and the audience is composed of parents, teachers, and friends of the children, as well as many of the past pupils themselves, all of whom listen with eager attention to the simple, lucid, yet careful and scientific explanations, which are given in a most charming way. Indeed, so pleasant and genial is the speaker and so fascinatingly does he present his subject that one teacher remarked at the close of a lecture, "I could listen an hour longer."

Dr. Blake first gave a detailed description of the ear—external, middle, and internal. His remarks were illustrated by models and charts which were passed about, and by sketches in colored crayons upon the black-board. In considering the visible part of the ear, the portal, so to speak, we were led to see that it was a thin flexible piece of cartilage, projecting from the side of the head, and supplied with a few weak muscles. He compared the movements of the human ear with those of the horse and the mosquito. He showed us that movements are in direct proportion to the immobility of the head, those animals most able to move the head being least able to move the ears, and *vice versa*. The trumpet shape and uneven surface of the ear are aids in its work of collecting sounds and giving them an inward direction. The auditory canal

or the tube part of the trumpet, extending inward and downward, is supplied with wax bitter and obnoxious to insects, and with hairs to impede their ingress. The hairs have also another function, that of diminishing the resonant capacity of the canal.

The middle ear, a small cavity or chamber of irregular shape, is separated from the external ear by a circular membrane called the drum-head. This membranous drum-head is tense and inelastic and so thin as to be almost transparent. The varying degrees of thickness were pointed out; also its form, concave as to its whole surface, but convex from the middle to the periphery. The tiny bones of the middle ear—the hammer, the anvil, and the stirrup—were graphically described, but no description or drawing could give so true an idea of their size and position as the daintily mounted specimen under a wee bell glass which we were all permitted to examine. By this means an idea of the chain of bones stretching across the middle ear from the membrana tympani, or the outer drum-head, to the membrane on the opposite side, and their action in transmitting vibration, were clearly set forth. If this middle ear is a drum with membranous heads, it must have a free movement of air within it, in order to maintain an equal pressure upon both sides. A narrow canal, called the Eustachian tube, leading into the throat, furnishes the required opening, and in the act of swallowing or gaping the air of the middle ear is renewed. The Eustachian tube serves also, like most of the parts of the ear, a double purpose, being a drain for the fluid which is secreted by the mucous membrane lining of the middle ear.

The internal ear is the most precious, and the part in which disease, if it enters, works the greatest havoc; but it is situated so far inside and in such a dense bone that it is well protected. Here we find the nerve of hearing spread out over a membrane which floats in a fluid.

Here, too, are the calcareous objects which correspond to the sea sand which a crab must have in its ears in order to hear at the time it is casting its shell, when, being most helpless, it most needs to hear its enemies. In this inner ear are the semi-circular canals which serve as the peripheral organ of equilibration, since their position and formation are such that they act like a carpenter's spirit-level, in three planes. Without them it is difficult to walk properly or balance well. Persons who have lost them cannot be made dizzy, no matter how rapidly they are twirled, for no record of the changes of position is made upon the brain.

The sound-transmitting apparatus in the ear having been described and its work briefly outlined, the sound-perceiving apparatus was touched upon. We were told that the hearing sense was the last part of the brain to go to sleep and the first to wake up. Some striking illustrations of this fact were given, one being that of a sailor who fell from a mast to the deck and was taken up for dead. His first consciousness, coming before that of the pain from his terrible bruises, was that of hearing some one say, "What shall we do with the body?"

Does it seem possible that the ear can be so trained that places may be known as they are passed in the night, not by sound, but by the effect of the air upon the ear? The story is told of an engineer who had long been running over a certain road. He was once absent for a few days. When he returned to his duties, as the train was rushing along in the darkness, he shouted to his fireman, "Where's Joe Smith's barn?" "It was burned night before last," was the reply. His quick ear, used to a certain effect at that spot, had noticed the difference.

It seemed wonderful to many of us that hearing was possible when the drum-heads were quite gone, but it was shown that vibrations could act directly upon the stirrup bone.

When Dr. Blake came to talk upon the diseases of childhood which impair the hearing, he caused many to feel surprised that measles, always supposed to be a simple and harmless disease, was the greatest cause of deafness, while scarlet fever came next. Out of a given number, eleven cases of measles would seriously affect the hearing, while there would be but three of scarlet fever. Whooping cough, mumps, and cerebro-spinal meningitis were shown to be causes of deafness, and the manner in which each disease affects the ear was described in detail. Chalky deposits, preventing the action of the bones of the ear; adhesions, the result of past inflammations of the mucous membranes; thickening of the drum-heads; accumulations of wax in the external ear; all these causes of impairment of hearing were briefly outlined.

A child's earache, resulting from an inflamed and thickened condition of the mucous membrane, is nearly always worse at night, because then the child, being at rest,—neither eating, laughing, talking, nor crying,—is not renewing the air in the middle ear. The pain is often relieved by supplying the ear with air; if no other means is at hand, a common clay pipe, if clean, may be made to answer the purpose by putting the stem in the child's nose and forcibly blowing through the bowl.

Nature has been most bountiful to us. We have double the amount of hearing that is necessary, more than double the tactile sense we have occasion to use, and this is equally true of sight. More than double the amount of nervous force needed is stored up ready for use. When one channel is blocked the nervous force will have to find its exit through the others. It does not indicate a lack of nervous force when one channel is blocked; this point was strongly illustrated by the peripheral effect of the emotion of fear. Suppose we were in a deep Devonshire lane, banks twenty feet high on either side, steep and slippery with moss, with openings at long intervals,

when suddenly we should see a bull of terrific aspect coming; immediately our hearts begin to beat and knees to shake, but not until we turn and run do we find relief. The nervous force liberated by the feeling of fear finds its readiest expression through the involuntary muscles, since they are the channels constantly open, but the voluntary muscles have, so to speak, a stop-cock,—the will, which must be turned on before they can furnish an outlet for the nervous force liberated by the feeling of fear. Hence our hearts beat and our knees shake first because they are not under the influence of our wills; but when we will to turn and run, the nervous force is switched off and expended in a new direction and our heart-beats become more normal.

Since there is this abundant supply of nervous energy, it may be that there is more than can be given off through ordinary channels when the ears are closed. This may account for the irritability the deaf show before they have received the training of the eye and the tactile sense which enables children to pour out surplus energy in useful ways.

We hear in other ways than through the ear, and in some cases of deafness advantage is taken of these possibilities to provide aids to hearing. A pine-wood pencil held between the teeth furnishes one means, since it is sometimes possible to hear a sound transmitted through the teeth. Another means of hearing through the teeth is to hold a Japanese fan against them, having the edge of the fan protected by a thin silver rim to keep the saliva from moistening the paper. One can hear by bone conduction in other ways; one well-known lady was able to hear conversation provided the speaker put his mouth upon the bone just above the eye.

In case an instrument is used, it is not well to have one fixed to the head, for continued exposure to loud sounds fatigues the sense of hearing. There are so-called in-

visible artificial aids to hearing widely advertised under different names. They are useful in cases of perforated drum-heads and have long been known to the profession. Unfortunately the charlatans who advertise them arouse hopes doomed to disappointment by their false claims of curing any and all cases of deafness by a means which is only useful in a few. Their object being to get all the money they can, they mix up a few genuine testimonials with many untrue ones, charge great prices for a simple mechanical device which is worth but a few cents, invest their operations with impressive surroundings, and in other ways seek to impose upon the credulity of parents who have the welfare of their sorely afflicted children at heart. It has been discovered that a "trust" which furnishes printed addresses of deaf people to these charlatans exists, and these addresses are obtained through the churches. Ministers are approached by letters requesting them to give information of those known to them who are unable to attend divine service because of their deafness, and are assured that any such persons whom they may mention will be treated at a large reduction.

When we meet again Dr. Blake promises to lead us into a more extended and exhaustive study of the anatomy of the ear, and to give us the latest results of scientific and psychological research as to utilizing as a means of education the modicum of aural sense which so many of the deaf possess.

IDA H. ADAMS,

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THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES. REPORT OF A VISIT, AND A FURTHER CONTRIBUTION TO THE QUESTION OF METHODS.*—II.

C. *Speech, the Sign-Language, Writing, and the Manual Alphabet in their Mutual Relation and their Relation to the Deaf.*

Deaf-mutism is an organic defect, for, lacking the sense of hearing, our deaf-mutes lack that organ of speech which is an essential condition of spontaneous vocal utterance.

Though equipped with the mental capacity for speech and with sound vocal organs, and associating exclusively with hearing persons, the deaf-mute nevertheless remains dumb, totally dumb, for so far there has not been a single authentic case of a person really born deaf and remaining deaf who has evolved even a few words from his own unaided resources. This fact should be given all the more prominence, since, not so long ago, an attempt was made in all seriousness to subvert this universal truth. For, in their zeal to defend an unsubstantially founded method, some persons have gone so far as to declare the voicelessness of the deaf to be nothing more than a crotchet, and to attempt to prove that deafness is no sufficient reason for dumbness.

1. *Speech* is an audible language addressed to the ear. Eminent philologists define speech as a collection of sounds. According to them man is a singing creature that combines thought with sound-notes. As music is the language of emotion, sonorous speech is the language

* Translated from the German by GEORGE W. VEDITZ, M. A., Instructor in the Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo. Continued from the April number of the *Annals*, page 210.

of reason—the mental activity that embodies itself in sound. Man does not speak with the ear, any more than an artist paints with the eye. But as the brain of the artist guides his hand, and the latter is watched and directed by the eye, so the soul of speaking man listens to its own activity, and so it controls and directs the play of the musical speech-apparatus through the sense of hearing.

Language is not only a means of communication with others, but it is in the first place, and above all, self-consciousness, communion of the speaker with himself,—it is the contemplation of the objective soul by the subjective soul. In his able treatise, “Love for the Mother Tongue,” Steinthal says, pertinently: “The soul, which gives impetus to the organs, will not be satisfied until it receives assurance through the ear that its impetus has met with the proper response. Whatever and however much the soul imparts to the organ, it insists upon receiving again in altered form through the ear.” Wilhelm von Humboldt assumes a similar standpoint in regard to the connection between language and the ear, in his well-known treatise “Concerning the Variety of Human Speech-Construction,” in which we find the following: “The inseparable union of thought, of the vocal organs, and of the hearing with language is unalterably based upon the original organization of human nature, and is no further explicable.”

This ingenious vocal language-mechanism with which nature has gifted normal man is destroyed in our deaf-mutes by the absence of hearing. Speech is an audible language addressed to the ear; the deaf-mute is without hearing, and for him there exists no audible language; therefore, a means of expression identical with the conception “speech” does not exist for him. The deaf-mute cannot embody his inner emotions in articulate sounds, cannot translate them into sounds, nor contemplate them

in sounds, and, therefore, this function, which in hearing man is filled by the ear, is performed by the eye. The deaf-mute is a creature of the eye; it is with the eye that he takes into himself the outer world, and after the raw material purveyed by his four senses has been mentally worked into shape he does not express his conceptions audibly, but visibly. The soul of the deaf-mute, fettered to a defectively constructed body, contemplates its products through that sense which it finds most convenient, it peers through that crack which lies nearest, and in the person of the deaf-mute this is the noblest of all the senses—the eye. But as the eye can find no service in sound, the deaf-mute takes his thoughts, conceptions, and ideas in hand, conducts them to the eye, and thus gives the longing soul assurance in visible signs that “its impetus has met with the proper response.”

For the deaf-mute there exists only a visible form of language. In this declaration De l'Épée expressed a truth, upon which, so far, all the tricks of sophistry have been miserably shattered. The deaf-mute is predestined to the language of signs, and he seizes upon visible gestures under the same natural necessity as that under which the normal man speaks and expresses himself in audible sounds.

Though this truth is incontrovertible, we should not conclude that under such circumstances every attempt to teach the deaf to speak is foolish. By the establishment of this fact, we have in the first place simply won a basis for determining the linguistic nature of the deaf-mute in general. If, now, experience shows that a not inconsiderable number of deaf-mutes have been taught speech with gratifying results, the circumstance alters nothing concerning this truth, and has, in itself considered, nothing to do with the conflict of methods.

In its present stage the conflict of methods no longer turns on the question whether the deaf-mute should or

should not learn speech. This question has been conclusively decided, nor have I ever answered it negatively. But the point at issue is *whether this artificial language is qualified to serve as the foundation of the entire instruction of all classes of the deaf.*

The fact is undeniable that many deaf-mutes have mastered the art of speech in such a degree that they can make themselves understood by everybody, and it is my conviction that it is possible to teach nearly all deaf-mutes at least enough of this art to enable them to carry on the most necessitous oral intercourse with those persons with whom they are in daily intercourse. For in course of time persons closely connected with these deaf-mutes become accustomed even to the hardest and most obscure pronunciation, and therefore this means of communication, however defective, is of incalculable value to the deaf in practical life. Therefore the deaf should learn to speak; their dumbness should be removed. But the application of this therapeutic pedagogy is far from completing our work of salvation, for the usefulness of a deaf-mute in practical life does not depend exclusively upon his skill in speech; his mental, moral, and religious education is of yet greater importance. For upon this last will depend whether he shall be found faithful and reliable in whatever post he may be called upon to fill in this life.

The representatives of the Pure Oral method emphasize in a one-sided manner the importance of speech, without understanding or appreciating all the other tasks which a school for the deaf must perform and which are identical with the purpose and end of the public school. By making articulate language the basis of all instruction and externally imitating the process of instruction observed with normal children, the Pure Oral method has degraded German schools for the deaf to a caricature of the public schools, a caricature that has hardly anything in common with the characteristics of the original.

Like writing, the articulation of the deaf is in the first place a mechanical dexterity that has very little or nothing at all to do with intelligence. As skilful instruction may make an expert penman out of a dolt who could not unaided write correctly any of his thoughts, so it is also possible by the application of the proper process to bring most deaf-mutes to a certain degree of intelligible articulation. But it often happens that this laborious task requires years, and that deaf-mutes who were originally endowed with normal capacities lose all their mental activity under this continuous mechanical occupation, and are gradually converted into respectable blockheads.

It is impossible to imagine a process of instruction more tedious, uninteresting, or spiritless to the pupil than the articulation instruction of the deaf; and, to be exact, we cannot speak at all of instruction during the development of sounds and the first lessons in articulation, for the business of removing or curing dumbness has more similarity with drill than with instruction. The articulation teacher sits before his pupil, like a piano-tuner before an instrument out of tune, but with this difference: that he cannot, like the latter, apply his key and mechanically produce the proper tone as desired by the ear. The little deaf-mute is to produce audible sounds which he is unable to criticise for himself, because, lacking hearing, he lacks the only *reliable* gauge for everything audible. He is required to imitate sounds of which the teacher, even though he speaks with the tongue of angels, can give him no approximate model. The skill of the teacher consists almost entirely in indefatigably speaking before the child and patiently waiting till the latter succeeds in imitating the desired sound. The little deaf-mute is thus the object of an experiment in the hands of the teacher. The whole process of removing dumbness is based upon crude empiricism. In any case it is a haphazard experiment in which one never knows what results will be attained. No

teacher of articulation can say at the beginning of a new school-year how his pupils will speak, for success depends more upon chance than upon his "science" and good intentions. Nor does the mental capacity of the pupils determine the success of the teacher's efforts. It is not at all infrequent that the pronunciation of intelligent pupils remains rough and indistinct, while on the contrary dull pupils learn to speak clearly and intelligibly. We have as yet no rule according to which we can achieve with our pupils even a single vowel sound with the desired distinctness, and this circumstance explains how it happens that the pupils of the same school and the same class articulate with so much difference.*

With the congenitally deaf, speech, in ninety-five cases out of a hundred, consists of a succession of mistakes in articulation. If we adhere to the principle that each mistake must be immediately remedied, the work in school consists—as is actually the fact—principally in the correction of faults in articulation. The daily work of instruction according to the Pure Oral method, therefore, has the greatest similitude with the conduct of a workman whose tools are in poor condition, and who, instead of working, wastes the greater part of the day in tinkering with his tools.

If the adherents of the Pure Oral method refuse to allow any other means of communication besides speech; if they wish to make speech, which to the deaf is so extremely artificial and so incompletely mastered, the foundation of the entire system of instruction, and insist upon influencing the deaf-mute mind only audibly and by word of mouth, then they must necessarily neglect the mental development of their pupils, and our schools for the deaf must, more and more, forfeit the character of educational

* Even at the school for the deaf at Frankfort-on-the-Main I failed to understand some of the pupils of the upper classes while reading, and the same was the case in the American oral schools.

institutions. How can we educate the deaf-mute by means of a language for which nature has denied him the capacity, and whose acquisition will require many years? To instruct the deaf-mute solely by means of speech, excluding all other means that lead to the desired end much more easily and quickly, is equivalent to making a food of a medicine; it is placing a bowl of soup before a hungry man with the remark that he must leave it untouched until he has whittled out a spoon for it.

The art of speaking is a blessing for the deaf, but the use of speech as the exclusive means of instruction and communication changes the blessing to a curse. In our case the popular proverb, *corruptio optimi pessima*, is only too true. The nobler an object, the worse it can be misused.

“With the introduction of the Pure Oral method, German schools for the deaf were placed in a state of mental siege,” said a prominent German teacher, with whom, not long ago, I had an opportunity to discuss the present state of things. But our case is like most cases where irrational and unjust means of coercion produce results just the contrary of those desired. Not only are the adult deaf in revolt against the violent usurpation of their natural rights, but even the smallest pupils of our schools find ways and means to save themselves from the mental starvation process to which they have been condemned for years. If the German “State examiners,” like those in the State of New York, should characterize and classify our schools according to that means of communication which the pupils use in their unrestricted intercourse among themselves, such a general muster would lead to astonishing results.

With full cups we preach total abstinence. “*Speech*” has been for twenty years the password of German teachers of the deaf, and yet in no country in the world do the deaf use signs more than in the land of the Pure Oral

method. While we insist that our deaf-mutes should speak and think in speech, their entire miserable little store of ideas lies bound in the fetters of the sign-language. In the school-room they are German ; at leisure they are French. Under the eye of the teacher there is mouth-to-mouth communication ; behind his back the means of intercourse is as if the French method were employed exclusively in all its purity. The glorifiers of the " living word " attempt to vanquish their hereditary foe, the sign-language, with tireless articulation and lingual gymnastics ; and as it is unable to satisfy the language necessities of its pupils, the Pure Oral method, following a natural necessity, leads to the sign-language.

The German school has long suffered from this dualism, nor has it ever been hidden from discerning men. When the first attempts at juggling with the German method were made, at the beginning of the seventies, Privy-councilor Saegert, then Inspector-General of the education of the deaf in Germany, a thoroughly competent and experienced man, wrote as follows :

If we demand that instruction should be given in schools for the deaf, with the entire exclusion of signs, and assert that the pupils really learn to think only in words, it is at least a self-deception of the teachers or an unnatural demand upon the school. With individual instruction at home this may be possible—of this I have plenty of instances—but in the schools for the deaf that I have seen and inspected for twenty-two years the sign-language exists universally among the children.

Nothing has been altered in these conditions by rechristening the " German method " as the " Pure Oral method." The German method is still the same monstrosity that it was twenty and more years ago. With the introduction of the Pure Oral method, German education has adopted the gait of the crab ; that is, it has not gone backward, but has gone forward wrong side first. The representatives of the new departure attempt to eradicate the sign-language, root and branch, without being able to offer the deaf anything in compensation. For the experience of a hundred years has taught us :

1st. That the Oral method has proved inadequate as a rational process of instruction, and that it offers no basis of sufficient capacity for the construction of a method of education for the deaf.

2nd. That it is incapable of satisfying the language-craving of the deaf, and therefore leads to the language of signs.

2. *The language of signs* is a medium of intercourse consisting of visible signs and therefore addressed to the eye.

As the language of an uneducated man differs in extent and finish essentially from that of the educated and learned, so we can distinguish different grades and stages of development in the sign-language. Teachers of the deaf, as a rule, classify signs as natural or artificial. Though this designation is not altogether exact, and it is difficult to draw a dividing line between the two, we will nevertheless adhere to this primitive classification, because in this place it will answer our purpose.

Natural signs are familiar to the layman under the name of pantomime. Hearing people make extensive use of them in common intercourse, and in public places of amusement and recreation they are even employed according to rules of art. The language of natural gestures is the property of all men. It is cosmopolitan, and therefore pantomimic performances are understood by every one, no matter what his nationality.

Natural signs, or pantomime, are not a language in the correct sense of the word, but are a plastic representation of things and conditions, even of thought, feeling, and endeavor. As men, in their innermost being, are organized alike, live in the same world, and are moved alike by things and events, in the plastic representations of pantomime they meet old acquaintances which are understood and comprehended like "pictures without words."

That natural signs do not come under the current conception of the word "language" is evident from the simple fact that a pantomimic representation cannot be stenographed, like the address of an orator, for instance. Pantomime may be *described* but not *transcribed*. It presents conditions and events to the spectator, but no thoughts in the form of speech. The natural sign-language does not consist of definite, fixed conventional signs, but of natural gestures that do not possess the value and significance of language symbols. They must be counted as means of description, and regarded as reflections or expressions of the impression produced on the mind.

Nature proceeds wisely and never without purpose. If Providence placed in the cradle of mankind the gift of a universal means of communication, in the shape of pantomime, then this motherly gift is of greater importance than the spoiled favorite of nature is inclined to believe in his thoughtlessness and ingratitude.

Though universally intelligible, pantomime cannot pass as a language in the strict sense of the word ; it nevertheless forms a step toward language, and yields the soil from which embryonic speech obtains its first sustenance. Not a single human being has as yet learned to speak intelligently without pantomime. Even before a child can speak it expresses its desires and necessities by gestures. That a child does not long confuse "papa" and "mama," that it connects the proper conceptions with the words and uses them intelligently, must be ascribed in the first place to instructive pantomime. The child would repeat parrot-like, and for years remain in the dark as to the meaning of such words as "good" and "bad," "pretty" and "ugly," "long" and "wide," "sweet" and "sour," "soft" and "hard," "large" and "small," "laugh" and "cry," "sing" and "spring," if gestures with their far-reaching hints were banished from the nursery.

Though pantomime is not a language, *it possesses the*

virtue of being able to explain the meaning of words. And if this universal medium of intelligence is of the greatest importance to normal man, it is simply indispensable to the little deaf-mute whom we are to conduct by the shortest path to a comprehension of language. Every teacher of the deaf should therefore be a master of pantomime, and should make the most unrestricted use of the language of natural signs which fits into every method.

The deaf-mute, however, does not stop at the pantomime here described. Under the necessity of the same laws by which the ideas and conceptions of hearing persons express themselves in audible words, the mental products of the deaf-mute express themselves in visible signs and gestures which in most cases have nothing more in common with the object designated than has the spoken or written word with the meaning it conveys.

In his intercourse with his relatives, the little deaf-mute creates a scanty gesture-language which is visibly perfected and increased in extent as soon as, on entering school, he comes into contact with others similarly afflicted and his mental horizon is suddenly widened. This medium of intercourse, therefore, which originated in the most natural manner, and is at least as natural as the artificial language of words, we designate, to distinguish it from pantomime, as the language of artificial signs, in order to indicate that it has ceased to be universally intelligible.

It is evident at the first glance that the deaf-mute simply yields to the necessity imposed by nature, when he creates a language that in its outer garb differs so much from the language of the hearing. Nor does it require any deep speculation to comprehend that if it had pleased Providence to create a deaf humanity, the latter would have created a medium of intercourse in the same direction. A deaf humanity would not speak, but use signs; it would never have created an audible, but a

visible form of speech. We must proceed from this point of view, in order properly to appreciate the relation of the deaf-mute to signs and to speech. From this point of view also we may understand why the deaf-mute clings to the sign-language with every fibre of his being, and why the results of our oral efforts remain, in general, so meagre. Even the most uneducated person can see at a glance how different would be the effect of gestures from that of inaudible lip-motions, should I say to a meeting of deaf-mutes, for instance, "All men must die," or "God loves all men." Whatever objections one may bring against the sign-language, the deaf-mute will never altogether forsake it and find a perfect substitute for it in artificial articulation. This language of signs, created in the first place by uneducated deaf-mutes, may be never so meagre, but it renders the greatest service to the deaf, and for the weakest of our weak ones, who are nowadays cast out of our schools as incapable of education, it may perhaps furnish the only means of education that can save them from complete brutalization.

It is unnecessary in this place to give psychological reasons why the language of signs is on the whole easier than speech. But that this is the case, and that the latter implies a higher degree of intelligence than the former, is evident from the circumstance that feeble-minded persons who, though possessing intact hearing, have never learned to speak, nevertheless use and understand gestures, so that many pupils of schools for the feeble-minded give the impression of being deaf-mutes.

If, however, feeble-minded persons, who, for want of intelligence, remain dumb, acquire the sign-language without difficulty, this circumstance leads to the inference that such a language must be very scanty. In fact, this is the case. The so-called language of signs, as used in the intercourse of pupils of most schools for the deaf, is in a very inferior stage of development, and consists in a

mere stringing together of symbols for what are mostly concrete conceptions. This beggarly language is sufficient for the intercourse of the uneducated deaf among themselves, but it not only confines them to the sphere of crude perceptions directly connected with the senses, but also renders all efforts to teach verbal language simply futile, and therefore this language is a regular cuckoo egg in the language nest of deaf-mute schools.

If signs and speech were of equal value, and if both stood in the same relation to each other as, for instance, German and French, then both languages might co-exist without much mutual disadvantage. But this is not the case. The sign-language lacks all the formal elements of speech. It has no declensions and no conjugations, and can, therefore, hardly be compared with spoken language. Contrasted with spoken language it is almost formless, and when this very incomplete means of communication becomes the vehicle of thought of the deaf-mute, all efforts to teach him spoken language are as good as useless. The deaf-mute thinks just as he makes signs, and he speaks and writes just as he thinks. An example will show how deaf-mutes with whom signs have become the organ of thought express themselves in spoken language. Recently a very intelligent deaf-mute, educated according to the German method, told me the following, which I wrote down while he was speaking, and herewith give verbatim: "K. in K. at Aix la Chapelle, five years in America work, chromo-lithograph. Mother widow justice in P. Four brothers and an sister with deaf-mute altogether five. Brothers four formerly student in Berlin. A lawyer and a mine superintendent in K. Two brothers America, I don't know what do. One married America. K. went away here, wedding to America. Brother lawyer. Wife is daughter of the lawyer in P. married. And Catholic all, but very good. But brothers don't like. All know finger language. Mother too. All four brothers fast as

myself, because deaf-mutes Berlin talk much. In Breslau also very popular and society help much. What for? [referring to my writing while he was speaking]. Want to learn about me, cunning. Talk short, but think head much. Home dinner. Won't talk more. Fearfully fatiguing. Must perspire."

This deaf-mute is counted among the so-called "prominent" members of his class. There are thousands of deaf-mutes in Germany with whom the Oral method has achieved yet more miserable results, who speak still more unintelligibly, use, whether speaking or writing, a still more horrible jargon, and stand far below this deaf-mute in their intellectual development.

These scanty achievements in spoken language are in the first place to be traced to the circumstance that the deaf-mute does not sufficiently master the language under the present method, and therefore thinks almost exclusively in signs. In regard to this language we may say the following:

(a) The sign-language is the most natural means of expression of the deaf, and a valuable means of communication among themselves.

(b) Since, however, the sign-language stands in a sort of antagonism to spoken language, and exerts a most harmful influence upon the acquisition of the latter, we should take pains, *during the years at school*, to prevent it from becoming the organ of thought.

But what medium of language can we offer the deaf capable of taking the place of the sign-language without exerting a similar unfavorable influence? Let us examine writing in this connection.

3. *Writing.* From a superficial examination it might seem that the deaf-mute, to whom an observant eye and a pronounced susceptibility for visible signs are natural, should learn written language with ease. But this is not the case. Theory and practice pronounce against this con-

clusion. The little deaf-mute certainly finds no difficulty in making satisfactory calligraphic imitations of letters and words, and he will even connect the proper conception with a dozen or so of written terms, but here his art comes to an end. Writing cannot serve as the basis of language instruction and as a means of conversation for the deaf.

In general, speech precedes writing, and verbal writing implies an oral language. A humanity without speech would have created no writing; a deaf and mute humanity, no verbal writing. Oral writing is embalmed speech, just as musical notes represent tones fixed on paper. But as notes have significance only for the musically educated, just so written speech symbols can be read with understanding only by one who can translate them into articulate sounds or into gestures. As the composer thinks not in notes but in tones, so hearing man thinks not in written symbols but in articulate sounds. Writing must be read, and in the act of reading only is it changed to speech again. Writing, as well as reading, is always, as any one can see from observation upon himself, accompanied by a still, small inner voice; and if this process is performed so silently that it is unperceived by those about us, we have to thank practice alone for the art. Children and uneducated persons can hardly read silently; in many cases their vocal organs are unconsciously called into activity.

Writing is not adapted to be the form of thought.* The human mind thinks in the body, and with the help of the body. The mind depends upon and is bound to the body in perceptive and linguistically formed thought, but not upon or to means that lie outside the body. Only direct movements of expression, such as articulate sounds and gesture signs, can serve as forms of thought.

Reading and writing are an art. Writing is an artificial form of speech that is not taught and acquired un-

* Here I refer only to verbal writing. With ideographic symbols the case is different.

consciously like articulate speech or gesture signs; but with purpose and study. Intelligent writing and reading are based upon a complex psychological process, and the acquisition of the art requires much time and presupposes a degree of intelligence not possessed equally by all persons. Our verbal writing has real value only for persons who can already speak and therefore read, but not for the deaf-mute so long as he is unable to transform the dead symbols into living sounds.

Therefore, though Messrs. Göpfert in Leipzig and Forchhammer in Nyborg have recently recommended in thoughtful treatises* that writing be made the starting point and basis of language instruction for the deaf, I regard this very noteworthy suggestion as impracticable. Such a method of instruction would burden the memory of the little deaf-mute beyond its capacity, and the results would be disproportionate to the time and labor expended. It should also be remembered that writing could not serve satisfactorily as a means of conversation, and that in a method of language instruction based on writing the deaf-mute must also be able to read. But how could the little deaf-mute read written language? Language instruction based on writing would not render gestures superfluous, but would lead the pupil back to them for two reasons:

(a) in order to have a convenient means of communication;

(b) in order to read (even if but inadequately) the written words.

Therefore the Writing method, just as the Pure Oral method, leads to the use of that means of communication for which we are seeking a substitute, and which we are forced to combat during the school course, if we do not

* See Mr. Göpfert's "The Place of Writing in Language Instruction," *Annals*, xiv, 32-110, and Mr. Forchhammer's "Imitative Language Instruction on the Basis of Writing," Leipzig, 1859.

wish to relinquish our purpose of giving the deaf verbal language.

A few pages back I pointed out the antagonism existing between the language of words and the language of signs. This incompatibility is still more apparent if we examine closely the relation between writing and signs.

Verbal writing corresponds with speech, but not with signs. The written letters of our language coincide in general with its sounds. Speech and written language are alike in the number and combinations of their elements, and therefore these forms of language mutually complete and help each other.

The language of signs cannot be divided, like speech, into sounds. The number of its elements cannot be determined. The sign-language consists of integral perceptive symbols, to which would correspond a perceptive writing consisting of ideographic symbols. Just as in the case of pantomime, a lecture delivered in the language of signs could not be stenographed. The initiated can reproduce communications in signs according to the contents, but not verbatim, for gestures are not words. In the same manner as signs cannot be written, writing cannot be accurately translated or read in signs. The same antagonism that exists between signs and speech exists also between writing and signs, and therefore, to be brief, we may say that *the sign-language does not correspond with the framework of speech.*

A system of instructing the deaf can be built neither upon writing alone nor upon writing in combination with signs alone. And though the French or American Manual method exhibits very satisfactory results, these results must be ascribed to the aid of another and additional means of communication, which has not as yet received from the profession in Germany the recognition it deserves. I refer to the manual alphabet.

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[TO BE CONTINUED]

THE FIRST ORAL SCHOOL WEST OF THE ALLEGHANIES.

MUCH has been written of the early attempts at speech teaching in America, and due honor has been paid to the instructors, but the history of one of the largest, longest in existence, and most interesting of these pioneer oral schools has been entirely overlooked, and the name of its founder is scarcely known in the profession.

From 1844 to 1854 there existed near Hopkinsville, Kentucky, a school for the education of the deaf by means of the Oral method. It was founded by the Rev. Robert T. Anderson, a Baptist minister, who had immigrated to Kentucky from Virginia, in 1818, while a young man.

Mr. Anderson had received a classical education and was a man of force and influence among his denomination in Kentucky. But the pay of a frontier minister was small and following a general custom of the day among the educated clergy, he sought to increase a slender income by teaching school. His schools followed his ministerial charges, but after teaching in one or two other places he opened one at Glasgow. Among the children of the neighborhood was a deaf boy in whom Mr. Anderson became interested. It is probable that he was cognizant of Braidwood's attempts to found an oral school for the deaf in Virginia, since he came from the section in which they were made, and when he emigrated from that State, in 1818, Braidwood's school was then in operation at Manchester. Certain it is that he took this deaf boy into his school and instructed him along lines now designated as the Oral method. The boy was bright, his instructor ingenious and persevering; so the attempt was quite successful. So interested did Mr. Anderson become in the work that he determined to open a school for the instruction of the deaf by the Oral method. With this purpose

in view, in order to gain additional information as to methods, he went back to Virginia to consult with the Rev. Mr. Kirkpatrick, who had been associated with Braidwood in the conduct of his school at Manchester in 1818.* He received much encouragement from Mr. Kirkpatrick, who is said to have declared, after having had Mr. Anderson's method laid before him, that it was as good as anything that he himself had learned from Braidwood. It is to be supposed, however, that if Mr. Anderson did not already possess some knowledge of Braidwood's methods, he received some useful hints from Mr. Kirkpatrick.

In 1844 Mr. Anderson opened his school near Hopkinsville, Kentucky, advertised that he would teach the deaf to speak, and soon had a number of pupils. The school was for both deaf and hearing children, and as it became larger Mr. Anderson was assisted by his son, Mr. Cornelius Anderson. The fame of the school spread to neighboring States, and pupils came from all over the South, and what was then the West. No record of the attendance exists, but it is known that in 1845-'6 there were enrolled one from Alabama, two from Mississippi, one from Indiana, five from Missouri, besides nine from Kentucky. Several other States were represented during the existence of the school. There were two sessions per year—from January 15th to July 15th, and from August 15th to December 15th. All the deaf children in attendance were "pay pupils," and while the charge for tuition was modest (\$20 per session) the long journey to a then not easily accessible section and the expense of boarding limited the attendance to a class of children among whom, naturally, a capacity above the average should have existed. The school was, therefore, fortunate in the character of its pupils; some of them, judging from their subsequent careers, must have been phenomenally bright as

* "Histories of American Schools for the Deaf," Washington, 1893, Vol. I, Virginia School, page 4.

children. The great drawback was the short time many of them remained, which precluded, in their cases, anything like a fair test of the method employed.

From the description given of Mr. Anderson's method by some of his old pupils, it seems not to have differed essentially from that used by oral teachers of to-day. He taught sounds first and then words, paid particular attention to the positions of the vocal organs, and had many of the devices for securing tone, pitch, etc., that may be seen in our articulation classes of the present time. He had no acquaintance with other educators of the deaf beyond the one meeting with Mr. Kirkpatrick mentioned above, and seems to have worked out the problem of the education of the deaf largely for himself, for, whatever suggestion he may have received from the theories of others, the practical application devolved upon him. The advocates of educating the deaf child in the same classes with hearing brothers and sisters will be interested to learn that, after a certain stage of advancement had been reached, the deaf pupils had part of their recitations with the hearing ones. On this point a grandson of Mr. Anderson, a son of Mr. Cornelius Anderson, who was assistant in the school, says: "The deaf and hearing pupils recited in the same classes. In geography, grammar, spelling, etc., the deaf recited just as the pupils who could hear did. The deaf beginners were not taught in a class, but by themselves, until they were advanced to a degree that permitted combining into classes."

As for that *bête noire* of the oral teacher of to-day, "signs," they seem to have worried Mr. Anderson but little. He had no special animosity toward them, and while "they were not used in the school-room," according to the testimony of his grandson, he permitted their use out of school, and even made use of them himself occasionally. His position is set forth by one of his deaf pupils as follows: "Mr. Anderson did not use the sign-

language much, but when he did it was quite natural. He also used the manual alphabet. He was a gentleman of imposing appearance, and his motions and expressions were clear and graceful." It should be stated here that he knew no "conventional signs."

As to the success of the school, the testimony is not altogether one way. There were "oral failures" then as now, and these and their friends have left behind evidence of their dissatisfaction. It seems probable, also, that the old complaint that in oral schools general education is sacrificed to some extent in the zeal for speech could be successfully lodged against this one. Some of the pupils afterwards entered the State School for the Deaf at Danville, Kentucky, and it appears that, judged by the ability manifested and the length of time they had been in school, their attainments in English were unsatisfactory. Mr. Jacobs, Superintendent of the Kentucky School, in one of his reports* referred to the matter in a not altogether complimentary manner. But it was natural that Mr. Anderson should fall into the error of spending an undue proportion of time in drilling his pupils in articulation. Besides being isolated and therefore lacking the spur of seeing what other schools for the deaf were doing in language-teaching, the acquisition of speech was the test by which the school was obliged to stand or fall. It would appear, however, from the fact of the advanced deaf pupils reciting with the hearing ones, that, after they reached a point that permitted of their being placed in such classes, their advancement in the English branches should have been reasonably rapid. Perhaps this was the case with those who reached that point, but, unfortunately, many did not remain long enough to do so. As to speech-teaching, a fair measure of success seems to have been attained, judging from the testimony of those who should know and the manner in

* Report of Kentucky School for the Deaf, 1866-'7, page 20.

which some of the living pupils use spoken language. Some pupils failed altogether to learn speech, others partly so, but on the other hand some learned an amount in the highest degree creditable to their instructors. The writer is acquainted with a number of congenitally deaf pupils of this school who possess speech in degrees varying from the ability to utter a few words up to that required to carry on conversations on ordinary topics. There were others, now dead or lost sight of, whom apparently authentic information credits with a sufficient degree of advancement on leaving school to entitle them to be considered oral successes. As further bearing on this point, the opinions of two former pupils of the school—one hearing, the other deaf—are given. The first is that of a hearing gentleman, now living in Missouri, who says :

“I must say that the school was a success. It is true that many of the deaf failed to learn to talk, but this was owing to the very short time they stayed for instruction.”

The other opinion is that of a successful business man who uses speech freely, though with the limitations common to the congenitally deaf :

“In this effort [teaching speech to the deaf] he seemed successful. It is to his credit that I learned to talk. Had he been young when he started this school, and in a city instead of such an isolated place, he would have, in my opinion, been one of the greatest oral teachers of the present time.”

Mr. Anderson died in 1854, and his son, desiring to engage in other pursuits, gave up the school at the close of the term. In view of what he accomplished, Mr. Anderson's name deserves an honored place among the pioneer teachers of speech in this country.

GEORGE W. McCLURE,

Instructor in the Kentucky School, Danville, Kentucky.

WHAT KNOWLEDGE WILL BE MOST USEFUL TO OUR PUPILS AFTER LEAVING SCHOOL?

THE essential objects of the education of the deaf, considered from a material point of view, are twofold:—
1. The acquisition of a working knowledge of the English language. 2. The learning of some useful trade. All other branches of education should wait on these, and should be subordinated to them. If we glance over the course of study of some schools for the deaf, we are impressed by the long list of subjects that are to be taught in a brief ten-year course. The question naturally occurs to the thoughtful mind: Can all these things be taught, and well taught, in the time allotted? The deaf child comes to us with no language at all. We have to begin, in that respect, in the very cradle, as it were. After four or five years of the most careful teaching, that deaf child is still far behind the hearing child of six or seven years as regards fluency and correctness in the use of language. In other words, we have to devote nearly half of the course to placing the deaf child on the same plane, as regards language, as the hearing child just ready to enter school.

Bearing this fact in mind, the danger of a too elaborate course of study is obvious. In the attempt to teach too much in a limited time, the knowledge imparted is apt to spread out over so great an area as to be perilously thin in places.

There is no duty devolving upon the instructor of the deaf more imperative than that of exercising careful selection and discrimination as regards the kind of knowledge to be imparted, to the end that the time assigned may be used to the greatest practical benefit of the children.

At the May meeting of the Teachers' Association of the Minnesota School for the Deaf, the discussion was based upon the ideas just set forth. The programme of the meeting was arranged and carried out by a committee of three: J. L. Smith, Chairman, L. C. Tuck, and Amy E. Snider. After an introduction by the Chairman, the following papers were read, in the order given: 1. "Our Language Work in its Practical Relation to the Future of Our Pupils," by Miss SNIDER; 2. "Common-School Studies in Relation to their Practical Value," by Mr. SMITH; 3. "The Value of Discipline and Training Apart from Mere Knowledge," by Mr. TUCK.

What follows is mainly a compilation or quotation from the several papers. Wherever quotation-marks are used, it may be understood that the words of the writer of the paper are quoted verbatim.

INTRODUCTORY.

"In the savage state man places ornament before utility. Barbarous peoples will barter their dearest possessions for cheap and gaudy trinkets. . . . With the advancement of civilization, man has more and more abandoned the merely ornamental for the useful. But in the matter of education this change has been slower than in physical and material things. It is only within comparatively recent years that there has been a reaction against the old, dry, scholastic methods, in favor of more rational and practical education. The growth of the kindergarten, nature study, child study, hygiene, manual training schools, agricultural colleges, etc., marks the change from the old to the new, from the ornamental to the practical, in education.

"The problem that confronts the teacher of the deaf is this: Given five hours a day, nine months of the year, for ten years, to transform an utterly ignorant being into

an educated citizen. We cannot teach everything in ten years. What, then, shall we teach?

"There are two questions which we should ask ourselves in regard to every subject which we teach or plan to teach: 1. Is its importance worth the time required to teach it? 2. Are there not things of more importance to which we could better apply the time? These questions should be asked and answered without the least regard for their effect upon the catalogue of studies, upon written examinations, or upon public exhibitions. There are studies which make a fine showing on paper, or sound well when spoken of to visitors, but they are of little or no practical value.

"Herbert Spencer says: 'To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge; and the only rational mode of judging any education is to judge in what degree it discharges such function.'

"What are the prime objects of education? They may be classified as follows, in the order of their importance:

- "1. Self-support.
- "2. Support of the family.
- "3. Social and civil duties.
- "4. Intellectual adornment.

"In arranging and carrying out a scheme of education for the deaf, we must bear in mind the limited time we have, and direct all our energies toward training our pupils so that they may not become burdens upon society, so that they may be able to assume and to discharge properly the family relation, and so that they may be capable of performing the common duties to society and to the State which are expected of all educated people. If, after we have done these things well, there remains any time, we may rightly devote it to such training as contributes mainly to intellectual adornment."

OUR LANGUAGE WORK IN ITS PRACTICAL RELATION TO THE
FUTURE OF OUR PUPILS.

The general welfare of the deaf after leaving school, including social, mental, and moral prosperity, depends more upon the mastery of written or spoken language than upon any other one thing. Therefore, the beginning and end of our instruction should be to give each pupil as facile a use of language as time and circumstances permit. "Of the many language lessons which may be taught with pleasure and profit, the great question is to decide which will prove of the most practical value in daily intercourse with the world."

It is important to consider the circumstances which are likely to surround our pupils in after life, and adapt our teaching largely to those circumstances. The great majority of our pupils come from the humbler walks of life, and their lot in life is likely to place them on the farm, in the workshop, or in domestic surroundings. It is highly important, therefore, that we should endeavor to make them familiar with the daily language of such environments. The names of the common implements of the household, the farm, and the workshop, as well as the forms of language used in directing or describing the use of such implements, are of great importance. But it is just such things that many of our older pupils do not know, though they may be well advanced in history, philosophy, grammar (technical), physiology, and kindred branches. "Many of the girls in the advanced classes show surprising ignorance of the most common names of articles in the home, kinds of food, methods of cooking, and the language used in connection with them. If objects are presented to them, they know what they are for, how used, and probably know how to make use of them; but, if questioned concerning them, they are not

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able to name the objects correctly or to describe the actions in English.

“A graduate of one of our schools, who had worked in a carpenter shop, said that he could not name many of the tools he used, nor describe many of the ordinary shop supplies, such as the size and shape of nails, and descriptions of lumber. Neither could he write the actions describing their use. Such a one, though a skilled workman, would find innumerable difficulties in his trade, if, indeed, he could find any one kind enough to employ him.”

Our boys and girls need to be familiarized with the language used in describing the objects and actions with which they are surrounded, at school and at home. Begin with the names of articles of clothing and of their parts, and the actions of putting on and taking off. Then follow up with the language used in describing the performance of the toilet. Carry it on into the dining-room, the school-room, the chapel, the workshop, and through all the routine of school work. Then extend it to home life, to farm life, and to all the branches of industry with which the children have had, or are likely to have, contact. In this connection Miss R. R. Harris's “Handbook in Language” may be found very useful and suggestive to both teacher and pupil.

“I think the best way to teach the language of domestic or industrial life is to give great prominence, all through the course, to connected action work, following the Gouin method. If a pupil learns the names and expressions peculiar to any subject and can describe the actions, he is well prepared to understand commands and execute them. One of the principal requirements of an employer is the ability readily to understand and execute orders. Lacking this ability, it is hard to get a position, and still harder to hold it.

“The ability to ask and answer simple questions is con-

ceded by all to be one of the greatest needs of the deaf. Most of the transactions of life are carried on by means of conversation. One constantly needs information and must ask questions. Wishing to give information creates the necessity of answering questions. Feeling unable to converse as hearing people do, accounts for the isolation of the deaf in many communities, as they cannot ask and answer the simplest questions. Inability to converse often prevents skilled workmen from obtaining employment, not to mention the difficulties met in many other lines. Let a deaf person go into the office of some busy man, take out his pad, and try to state his business, seeking some kind of employment. A few pertinent questions misunderstood and incorrectly answered are enough to convince the man that he has no time to bother with such a person." If we had a complete list of all the deaf men and women from our schools who failed to get employment from inability to ask for it intelligently, or who lost a place from inability to comprehend written instructions, the length of the list might cause us teachers serious thought and an amendment of our methods.

One of the leading graduates of the Minnesota School, who has associated largely with hearing people since he graduated, urges, most earnestly, that more time be given to instruction in colloquial language. He learned, through bitter experience, what a drawback the lack of such language is, both socially and industrially. He has overcome his own deficiency in this respect, by force of will, and offers his experience for the benefit of deaf children who are still at school.

Letter-writing is an important and practical phase of language work in our schools, and we can well afford to devote more time to it, in the place of other forms of composition-writing. The language of letters deals with everyday matters, and facility in letter-writing implies facility in the use of colloquial language. Special attention

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should be given to formal and business letters, as persons receiving such letters are apt to judge of the intelligence of deaf writers from the wording and style of the letters.

So much has been said and written about the value of reading as an aid to the acquisition of a good English style that it is not necessary, in this article, to do more than call attention to it as the surest means by which the deaf person can advance toward fluency and correctness in the use of language after leaving school.

COMMON-SCHOOL STUDIES IN RELATION TO THEIR PRACTICAL VALUE.

“There is every reason for teachers of the deaf to question themselves seriously whether the tendency is not toward a multiplicity of text-books at the expense of what is far more necessary and important to the welfare of the pupils. Says Herbert Spencer: ‘Only when his acquaintance with the objects and processes of the household, the streets, and the fields is becoming tolerably exhaustive—only then should a child be introduced to the new sources of information which books supply. . . . Intellectual progress is necessarily from the concrete to the abstract. But, regardless of this, highly abstract subjects, such as grammar, which should come quite late, are begun quite early.’

“Technical grammar was never intended to be a means of learning language, but rather as a means of finishing and polishing a language already learned. If we introduce the study of technical grammar before our pupils have a fluent use of reasonably correct language, we are putting the cart before the horse, and doing an injury to the pupils by using time that might much better be employed in practical language work. . . . I have now in my class two pupils who can diagram and analyze the most intricate sentences with hardly an error, but, when

they are called upon to produce original language, they flounder around hopelessly in a maze of words and phrases. On the other hand, I have a pupil who has a fluent command of English, but who cannot make head or tail of diagrams, analysis, and other grammatical formulas. My conclusion is that we could very well afford to dispense with technical grammar, save in the very highest classes, and devote the time thus gained to more practical means of imparting English.

“There are two forms of history which are of sufficient importance to demand our attention. They are Current history and United States history. I give the first place to Current history, for I think it more useful for our boys and girls to know what is going on in the world about them than to know what happened years and years ago. . . . So long as our pupils are hesitating and faulty in language, I hold it a serious mistake, if not a wrong, to spend time upon Ancient or English history. I would even go so far as to hold United States history in abeyance if I felt that the time could be better devoted to language.”

A very little geographical knowledge will go a long way with our pupils. It should be physical in its nature, more than political, and should treat of the locality, the state, and the nation, in order. It is a waste of valuable time to teach the meaningless definitions of the natural divisions of land and water, and the names of all the insignificant rivers, lakes, mountains, towns, etc., in Africa and Asia. By the intelligent use of the map and the globe, supplemented by instructive talks from the teacher, a more practical knowledge of geography can be given to deaf children than by the use of an exhaustive text-book which requires hours and hours of wearisome study.

“The importance of arithmetic as a school study depends upon the kind of arithmetic we teach. A great deal of arithmetic work, if judged by the severe test of

utility in after life, would be pronounced pure foolery. I have known pupils who attained such skill in figure juggling that they could do intricate examples in compound interest, partial payments, square and cube root, yet who would be at a loss to do a simple mental operation in buying and selling goods in a store. If they had been sent down to market to measure and appraise a load of wood, they would have failed utterly. Yet they had probably passed through mensuration with flying colors. A great deal of the arithmetic work taught in schools is figure jugglery, without anything practical in it. What our pupils need, and what we should try to give them, is—

First, the ability mentally to add, subtract, multiply, and divide small numbers rapidly and accurately. Second, the ability to work out simple problems in buying and selling such as are actually performed every day in the store and markets. Third, the ability to weigh and measure and appraise at market values, articles which they are likely to buy or sell when they take their places in the industrial world. Fourth, the ability to compute simple interest on time notes. The tendency toward an increased amount of written and text-book work in arithmetic should be checked, and the preponderance of time be given to mental work.

“In physiology and hygiene, such matters as food, clothing, exercise, rest, exposure, etc., and their bearing upon the health and happiness of man, should be clearly set forth. But to go into the structure and composition of the human frame, organs, and tissues is a waste of time.

“Nature study is one branch of education in which we could well afford to do more. Nature is the greatest teacher. Whatever may be the life occupation of our pupils, there is something in the study of nature that will benefit them. The boy or girl who once becomes truly interested in nature is bound to improve, for a

desire will be awakened to know more about things that are seen, this knowledge will be sought in books, and a reading habit will be formed.

“There are many social, legal, and political obligations which our boys and girls will be expected to fulfill after they have attained to adult years. They should all have practical instruction in common law points before leaving us. I know of one deaf man who endorsed a note for a friend, not knowing that he might have to pay it. He was only saved from heavy loss by the kindness of the bank president. I have read letters, written by deaf persons, containing language which would have landed the writers in prison, if complaint had been made to the proper officials. A deaf man in the east was cheated out of considerable property by being induced to sign papers that he did not understand. Cases like these show the importance of giving our pupils some instruction in municipal, county, state, and national laws, in relation to the rights of person and property.

“Political instruction is not so important, but something should be done in the way of a brief course in civil government. If we can train our young men to vote intelligently and conscientiously, we have done our duty.

“As to training in character, the importance of that was fully set forth in a previous number of the *Annals* (xliv, 41-53), under the heading of ‘An Outline Course in Manners and Morals.’

“Speech and lip-reading occupy a prominent place in the education of the deaf. The test of utility should be applied to them as rigidly as to any other branch of education. If, by employing speech and lip-reading, we can best fit our pupils for the practical duties of life, then it is a wrong not to employ them.

“The problem in education is the same as the problem in mechanics,—how to economize time and power. Inventive genius has steadily raised the percentage of

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power utilized in machinery. If there were some kind of a dynamometer which could indicate the amount of teaching force expended, as well as the amount utilized, we should be amazed, probably, at the vast amount of teaching energy that is wasted in teaching things that are not, and never can be, of any practical use to our pupils. If we can give them a practical command of spoken or written English, with enough other information to enable them to make their way successfully and happily in life, then, if there is time left, we may add some of the educational frills and furbelows. But so long as our pupils are woefully deficient in the ability to use common English, and in practical knowledge, the teaching of a smattering of sciences is a wrong that should be righted."

THE VALUE OF DISCIPLINE AND TRAINING APART FROM MERE KNOWLEDGE.

"The mere getting of knowledge, because it is knowledge and makes us wise, is of no more use to us than the miser's hoarded gold is to him. Knowledge that we may use, that will be directly helpful to us, is something that we are quick to value and desire. But to consider this the end and aim of education is to take the very narrowest view of the subject. One of the most ancient, as well as one of the best, definitions of education is that of Plato, who said, 'The purpose of education is to give to the body and to the soul all the beauty and all the perfection of which they are capable.' If this definition be accepted, education lasts from the cradle to the grave. . . . The acquisition of knowledge is only one of the many factors that go to make up education.

"The man who has been in the army carries the stamp of the army about with him forever after. He knows how to walk and how to carry himself. The means by which he arrived at this acquisition—the hours of hard,

monotonous drill, drill, drill—are gone and forgotten, but the springy step and the erect and easy carriage remain to be a help and an advantage to him as long as he lives. ‘The baby knows no rules. It seeks only what seems pleasant to itself. It is kept by force from doing what would be harmful to itself or to the persons or things about it.’ It is not knowledge and it is not physical or mental growth that change it into the well-balanced adult, whose life is valuable to himself and to the world. The body must be educated, the senses must be trained to sharpness and accuracy, the hands must learn skill, the mind must be cultivated, the feelings must be restrained and put under control.

“We teachers are like the overzealous housewife whose work is never done. In her eternal battle with dirt, she sometimes becomes so absorbed that she loses sight of the fact that the end and aim of all her labors is not the doing away with dirt and dust, but the maintaining of a comfortable home to be used and enjoyed. In our efforts to impart knowledge, we are apt to overlook the fact that knowledge itself is not the end and aim of education.

“That knowledge will be most useful to our pupils after leaving school which will enable them to continue by themselves the work that we begin here. To this end, we should keep constantly in mind the training and discipline, as well as the direct results in the increase of their knowledge, which follow from our labors. The training and discipline will endure and bear fruit long after the knowledge is forgotten.

“The school is very like the world on a smaller scale. The habits which our pupils form, or which we cultivate in them in the school-room and shop, are the habits which will stay with them after they leave us. If we show them the necessity and reasonableness of obedience to the school rules, they will respect and obey all law. If we lead them to apply themselves with industry and perse-

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verance to their lessons and work, we lay firm foundations for the same habits in their future lives. In short, there is no virtue or good quality of character that we may not plant and cultivate.

“No one lives or should live entirely by himself. Every one is bound to others by ties of obedience, love, and usefulness. If our pupils leave us without beginning to understand and to practice these virtues, they are deficient in the education which, more than any other, helps to make that beauty and perfection of body and soul to which it is the privilege and duty of man alone of all God's creatures to strive to attain.”

The reader of the *Annals* is asked not to misunderstand this article as intending to belittle the importance of a broad education. Its aim is, rather, to magnify such things as may have the most direct influence upon the pupils' lives. It takes a stand against the crowding and contracting of the necessary and important for the sake of the superficial and ornamental; against paying tithe of mint, anise, and cummin, while neglecting the weightier matters of the law.

There are deaf children in all our schools who are so happily endowed by nature that they can learn language, and all else prescribed in our courses of study, without much difficulty, in the allotted time. They graduate, a credit to themselves and to us, and may then go to college and pursue its course with equal success. But such form but a small percentage of the whole number of the deaf, and they must not be taken as a gauge of our success in the work. To estimate correctly what our schools are doing for the deaf we must turn our backs on these bright and shining lights, and, going among the highways, byways, and hedges, study the conditions as they are with the toilers, the proletariat of the deaf. Put to these the test of written, spelled, or spoken English, on the affairs

of every-day life, and try to realize what a detriment, what an embarrassment, imperfect use of language and ignorance of common things are to them. At the same time consider the hours and hours which were spent, rather wasted, at school in trying to teach these same people definitions, formulas, and facts that are of no practical benefit to one in a hundred. Then let us go back to our school-rooms and direct our energies to better purpose.

JAMES L. SMITH,
Instructor in the Minnesota School, Faribault, Minnesota.

THE SIXTH SUMMER MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION TO PROMOTE THE TEACHING OF SPEECH TO THE DEAF.

THE Sixth Summer Meeting of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf was held at the Clarke Institution, Northampton, Mass., June 22 to 28, 1899. The number of members of the Association in attendance during the whole or a part of the meeting was 181 ; of non-members, including pupils and former pupils of the Clarke School and citizens of Northampton, 176 ; of superintendents and principals of schools for the deaf, 31. A very large majority of the persons present were women.

The exercises of each day began with school-room work conducted by teachers of the Clarke School in their respective class-rooms. This lasted for an hour and a half. Then for an hour there was a lecture by some distinguished educator not connected with the instruction of the deaf, and the remaining hour of the morning was occupied with the reading of short papers by members of the Association. The afternoons were left free for the pleasant excursions to places of interest in which Northampton and its vicinity abound, and in the evening there were

Summer Meeting of the American

and social gatherings. Sunday evening memorial tributes to members of the Association died since the last meeting was held, and the programme of the meeting was as follows:

THURSDAY, JUNE 22.

SCHOOL.
The President Corporation of Clarke School.
Superintendent of Public Schools, Northampton.
Dr. ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL.

FRIDAY, JUNE 23.

Work.
Department—the Primary in Dudley Hall, the Grammar in Baker Hall, the Grammar in Clarke Hall.)
Papers.
State:
Prof. JOHN M. TYLER, Amherst College.
Lectures:
A. LINCOLN FECHHEIMER.
Work in Schools for the Deaf:
EDWARD C. RIDER, Malone, N. Y.
How to Use Them:
Miss FLORENCE McDOWELL, Philadelphia, Pa.
Abuse of Pictures:
Miss MARGARET STEVENSON, Jacksonville, Ill.
Mr. GEORGE W. CABLE.

SATURDAY, JUNE 24.

Schoolroom Work.
Lectures and Papers.
Pedagogy:
Prof. WILLIAM A. CLARK, Harvard University.
Re-enforcement of Speech by Writing:
Miss MABEL ELLERY ADAMS, Boston, Mass.
Relation of Language to Mental Development and of Speech to Oral Teaching:
S. G. DAVIDSON, Philadelphia, Pa.
The Association Magazine:
F. W. BOOTH, Philadelphia, Pa.
Lecture—Habitual Hearing:
Dr. CLARENCE J. BLAKE, Boston.

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MONDAY, JUNE 26.

9.30 A. M.—Schoolroom Work.

11.00 to 1.—Lectures and Papers.

Some Recent Phases of Educational Thought :

THOMAS M. BALLIET, Superintendent of Schools, Springfield.

Memory in Education :

WESTON JENKINS, Trenton, N. J.

Rhythm as an Aid in Voice-Training :

MISS SARAH ALLEN JORDAN, Boston.

The Walls of Our School-Rooms :

MISS CORA R. PRICE, Philadelphia, Pa.

Evening.—

Illustrated Lecture on Japan :

Dr. A. G. BELL.

TUESDAY, JUNE 27.

9.30 A. M.—Schoolroom Work.

11.00 to 1.—Lectures and Papers.

Nature Study and Elementary Science :

Prof. ARTHUR C. BOYDEN, Normal School, Bridgewater.

What Shall We Do With Our Feeble-Minded Pupils ?

Dr. A. L. E. CROUTER, Philadelphia, Pa.

Voice-Culture :

MISS ANNA C. ALLEN, Fulton, Mo.

How to Correct Defective Articulation :

MISS ELLA SCOTT, Mystic, Conn.

Evening.—

Business Meeting.

Musical Entertainment.

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 28.

9.30 A. M.—Schoolroom Work.

11.00 to 1.—Lectures and Papers.

A Few Books :

MISS KATHARINE FLETCHER, Northampton.

Physical Training and Games :

HARTVIG NISSEN,

Director of Physical Training, Boston Public Schools.

Closing Exercises.

The lectures by eminent educators not connected with the instruction of the deaf presented some phases of general pedagogy that were interesting and profitable for all

teachers. Especially suggestive were Mr. Balliet's on "Some Recent Phases of Educational Thought," and Dr. Blake's on "Habitual Hearing."

The papers read by members of the Association were thoughtful and practical. Being few in number and covering a limited range of topics, they probably left a more vivid impression upon the minds of those present than if their number had been greater and their range wider. One that was listened to with unusual interest was Mr. A. Lincoln Fechheimer's description of his "University Experiences." Mr. Fechheimer is congenitally deaf. After graduation from the Clarke School he spent four years in hearing schools in Cincinnati, and then pursued a four years' course of study in the School of Architecture of Columbia University, from which he has recently been graduated with the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Of the various devices by which he obtained notes of the lectures given by the professors, that which he found most convenient was copying the notes taken by a classmate word by word as he sat beside him in the lecture-room. He expressed the opinion that any deaf person with a good command of language, and able to understand others and make himself understood fairly well, could successfully pursue a course of instruction in a college for hearing persons.

A feature of the meeting which competed successfully with the attractions of the afternoon excursions was the exhibition of the Akoulallion,* kindly brought for that purpose by Mr. E. H. Carrier, Principal of the New York Institution. The results of the experiments at Northampton witnessed by the writer on two afternoons were not remarkable, but we are informed that some made when he was not present were more successful. Mr. Carrier, who has already tested the instrument to some extent in the New York Institution, and whose previous

* See the June number of the *Annals*, pp. 301-306.

investigations and inventions in connection with various aids to hearing render him a competent judge, believes that the Akoulallion possesses considerable merit in the possibilities of its further development if not in its present form, but he will give it a thorough trial with the pupils of the New York Institution before expressing a definite opinion.

The presence of the deaf-blind Linnie Haguewood with her teacher, Miss Dora Donald, added interest to the meeting. Linnie has attended the South Dakota School for the Deaf during the past year and has made marked progress in language and general information. Miss Donald expects to continue her education in connection with a school for hearing children next year. Linnie's surprise that experienced teachers of the deaf present did not know the manual alphabet, and her desire to teach it to them at once, created some amusement.

The most valuable of all the exercises of the meeting was perhaps the class-room work of the Clarke School. Few teachers have the opportunity to see any school—scarcely, indeed, any class—except their own during term time, and the opportunity of observing the methods of instruction pursued in such an admirable oral school as the one at Northampton was highly appreciated. During the hour and a half of each day devoted to this purpose, the teachers and pupils of the Clarke School in six classrooms of different grades illustrated the ordinary work or the review work of the year, and the rooms were constantly crowded with teachers from other schools, who for the time being became eager learners. For this opportunity, and for that of examining at all hours the excellent illustrative material with which the schoolrooms and library are equipped, much of it the work of the teachers themselves, as well as for many courtesies during the meeting, the members of the Association are greatly indebted to the principal and teachers of the Clarke School.

E. A. F.

THE MEETING OF DEPARTMENT SIXTEEN OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIA- TION AT LOS ANGELES.

THE Annual Meeting of the National Educational Association was held this year at Los Angeles, California. It was an imposing assembly of the educational forces of the country, both in respect of numbers and of *personnel*. The local papers claimed that fifteen thousand persons were registered at the headquarters of the Association. Of course, a good many took advantage of the low rates offered by the transportation companies to visit California, but there were present probably eight thousand men and women actually engaged in school work of every grade from the kindergarten to the university. As in most gatherings of this kind, the women were largely in evidence, and added greatly to the gaiety and brightness of the vast general congregation in Hazard's Pavilion, not only by their earnest faces, but by their summer gowns and head-gear.

Department Sixteen, embracing the educational interests of the deaf, the blind, and the feeble-minded,* occupied the afternoons of Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, July 12, 13, 14. The meetings were held in the Broadway Presbyterian Church with a capacity of eight hundred. On Wednesday a good audience was present, among which were many friends of the little day-school for the deaf in Los Angeles. The State Institution at Berkeley was also well represented, and, considering the distance and expense, there was a fair showing from schools east of the Rocky Mountains.

In the absence of the President Mrs. KATE F. BINGHAM presided. The proceedings were opened by a short ad-

* Only the portion of the proceedings relating to the deaf is here reported, as that alone comes within the scope of the *Annals*.

dress from President DAVID STARR JORDAN, of Stanford University. It was a pleasantly worded speech of sympathy with the great work of educating the deaf, and of congratulations upon the inclusion and recognition of this benefaction in the field embraced by the National Educational Association.

Mr. CHARLES S. PERRY, of Berkeley, read a paper under the heading, "Why Should Deaf Children be Allowed from Five to Ten Years Less Time in School than Hearing Children?" The subject was prescribed for him, but as the fact seemed to be from his statistics that deaf children in many, if not most, States are allowed about as much time in school as parents will take advantage of, there was not much to say on the title matter, and so the speaker branched off into an interesting discussion of practical school-room methods and appliances, and the necessity of a sympathetic spirit on the part of the teacher, all of which the long experience of Mr. Perry fitted him to deal with authoritatively.

"All Along the Line" was an earnest paper by Mrs. KATE F. BINGHAM. It was written from the point of view of a mother of two partially deaf children to whose education she has devoted her life. She believes in "pure oralism," day-schools for the deaf, co-education of deaf and hearing children, and early instruction of the deaf. She does not admit that deafness causes any disturbance of mental processes, but claims that deaf children think and are just like their normal companions.

Miss HELEN TAYLOR, kindergartner of the Los Angeles Day-School for the Deaf, read a paper on "The Importance of a Right Beginning," which voiced the experience and enthusiasm of a wide-awake teacher in an interesting field.

In "Vacation Schools for the Deaf" Miss MARY McCOWEN, Principal of the Chicago Public Day-Schools for the Deaf, treated the subject with her usual intelli-

gence and knowledge, drawn from observation of similar schools established for hearing children. One could not fail to be impressed with the facts Miss McCOWEN set forth in regard to the work accomplished in these latter schools, but whether such an innovation is necessary or desirable with the deaf is a question open to debate.

In the discussion which followed the reading of the papers, Mr. J. A. FOSHAY, Superintendent of Schools in Los Angeles; Mr. ALBERT G. LANE, Superintendent of Schools in Chicago; Dr. WM. E. WADDELL, President of the Parents' Association; Miss MARY McCOWEN; Miss WEST, of Philadelphia, and Messrs. WARRING WILKINSON and FRANK O'DONNELL, of the California Institution, took part. Mr. FOSHAY told of the establishment of the day-school for deaf children in Los Angeles; of its experimental nature, the interest in the work, and the satisfaction so far with the results of the experiment. Mr. LANE and Miss McCOWEN expressed favorable opinions concerning the need and work of day-schools in Chicago. Miss McCowen's account of the formation of societies or clubs by mothers of deaf children was interesting. This education of parents to co-operate with the school in furthering the education of their children suggests a field of great usefulness.

Dr. WADDELL, as a parent of two deaf children, spoke feelingly in favor of the day-school. His remarks were largely from the sentimental side of the question, but his utterances were those of a man who felt the responsibility of his parental relation; who wanted to do the best thing for his boys; who had sought that "best thing" with earnestness; but whether he had found it, did not seem so clear.

Dr. WILKINSON, while admitting that day-schools for the deaf might, under proper supervision and restrictions, serve a useful purpose, opposed their general introduction as a State policy on the broad ground of increased

cost, of inefficiency due to lack of competent teachers, proper classification, needful discipline, and regular attendance, and often from the misfortune of home environment. He endeavored to show that in most cases the day-school either disappeared or was converted into an institution, instancing the day-schools at Pittsburgh, at Philadelphia, at Scranton, and at Portland, each of which, after a varied experience under the best auspices, has found the theory and practice of the day-school inadequate. He read letters from the principals of those institutions, whose testimony, as well as that of the Rev. Dr. Stainer, the father of the London day-schools, was most unfavorable as to the success and efficiency of such schools.

Dr. Wilkinson was disposed to think, however, that, in spite of the many and serious objections to day-schools as a separate and independent department of public instruction, they might be made to serve a useful purpose if properly located, officered, and supervised, but that they should be branches of the State Institution and under the control of its management in connection with the Superintendent of Public Instruction. Pupils should be admitted at five or six years of age and remain till ten or twelve years old, but the whole time should be spent in the teaching of speech and lip-reading under the very best teachers. When the pupil is at the limit of age, an examination should determine whether the Oral method should be continued or abandoned for the Combined System or the Manual method. Some such device as this ought to harmonize all differences between those who are seeking the best good of the deaf, irrespective of methods.

Mr. O'DONNELL, in a forcible speech, took exception to a remark made by Dr. Waddell, concerning the undesirable intermingling of children of different social conditions in an institution, which remark the speaker regarded as out of place in democratic America. Mr.

O'Donnell spoke from an experience of twenty-five years, half of which was spent in English schools for the deaf, where he had an opportunity to observe the working of day-schools. The opinion thus derived was very unfavorable to the system.

At a subsequent meeting of the Department, the following officers were elected to serve for the ensuing year: Dr. Warring Wilkinson, Berkeley, California, President; Miss Mary McCowen, Chicago, Illinois, Vice-President for the Deaf; Mr. Edward E. Allen, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Vice-President for the Blind; Dr. Arthur C. Rogers, Faribault, Minnesota, Vice-President for the Feeble-Minded; Dr. Edward Allen Fay, Washington, D. C., Secretary-Treasurer.

An interesting and pleasant feature of the Los Angeles meeting was a dinner given at "Illicks" on Thursday evening to the visiting members of the Section, by the local friends of the deaf, represented by Dr. Waddell. It was a gracious thing to do, and the courtesy was gratefully appreciated by the guests from abroad.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

American School.—Miss Lucy M. Clark has resigned to be married, and Miss Hattie M. Bear, who was a normal student at Gallaudet College last year, has been engaged as a teacher for the coming year.

Colorado School.—Mr. Max Kestner has retired, and Miss Mary E. Griffin, of the Minnesota School, and Miss Elizabeth Rice, of Missouri, have been appointed teachers.

Illinois Institution.—Mr. C. Spruit, a teacher of many years' experience in the Iowa School, Miss Mabel M. King, of Jacksonville, a graduate of the training class of the McCowen School, and Miss Frances Wait, who returns to the work after a year of rest, have been appointed teachers to fill vacancies

occasioned by the retirement of Mr. F. M. Driggs, Miss Anna B. Gilchrist, and Mr. E. S. Henne.

The Report of the Illinois State Superintendent of Public Instruction for the biennial period ending July 1, 1898, contains a Report from Dr. Gordon on the education of the deaf; in which his views concerning the proper organization of schools, methods of instruction, and kindred topics are ably set forth. Dr. Gordon's Report, with the addition of some supplementary matter, has been reprinted separately at the Institution press.

The Auricular Department has been discontinued, in the belief that the same ends may be accomplished more effectively in the various classes of the Oral Department.

The old "drinking-well" has been abandoned, after a chemical and bacteriological examination of the water, and a new well, eleven feet in diameter, has been sunk, as far as possible from sources of contamination, one thousand feet from the boiler house. The new pumping system supplies water by direct pressure, dispensing with the storage tanks heretofore used. A contract has been let for the early re-roofing of the schoolhouse building, with Brownsville, Maine, slate of the best quality. The electric-lighting plant, probably the oldest in any public institution in the world, has been completely renewed and electric power has been substituted for steam power. The new plant includes two direct coupled generators of 50 K. W. capacity, and four motors: one twenty-five horse power, one fifteen horse power, one ten horse power, and one two horse power. The generators are connected directly with new engines of sixty and forty horse power, respectively. The entire heating system has been overhauled. New heating mains of seven-inch and six-inch pipe have been laid, and the returns from every radiator in the system are furnished with automatic thermostatic valves by the Scott Valve Company, of Chicago. These changes, in connection with improvements made last year, effect practically, a complete renewal of the heating plant and the transformation from a high-pressure to a low-pressure ~~vacuum~~ system at a very moderate outlay. In the way of house furnishing, new single, all-metal, ~~bedsteads~~ and mattresses of superior quality, all made to order, replace the ancient equipment of the entire establishment.

Indian Territory School.—Miss Laura A. Rowland writes that she has been conducting, for more than a year, a school for the deaf and the blind at Fort Gibson, Indian Territory. It is supported by charitable contributions, but Government support is hoped for. There are seventeen pupils, of whom six are Indians (Cherokees and Choctaws) and the rest white.

Indiana Institution.—Mr. Richard O. Johnson has been re-elected Superintendent for the next four years, from September 1, 1899, to September 1, 1903. Miss Mabel Eddy, who was trained at the Clarke School, has been added to the corps of teachers, and another teacher is yet to be appointed.

The school building has been remodelled, giving three new schoolrooms and toilet rooms. The steam-heating plant has been rearranged, and a large fan and electric motor introduced. A separate residence for the Superintendent has been built.

Jews' Home.—The new buildings of the Jews' Deaf and Dumb Home, The Grange, Nightingale Lane, Wadsworth Common, London, England, were consecrated with appropriate ceremonies, by the Chief Rabbi, May 14, 1899. The buildings are commodious and handsome, constituting a noble monument to the generosity of the Jewish community in London.

Kansas School.—Miss Frances McKinley, Mr. J. W. Thomas, Miss Leslie Hoge, Miss Kate Lindsay, Mrs. Grace Caress, Miss Susie Boyd, and Miss Hattie Yoe, who were teachers here two years ago, have returned to the work, and Mr. Paul Hubbard, a graduate of the Colorado School and for some time a student of Gallaudet College, and Miss May Murry, formerly teacher of art in the Nebraska Institute, have also been added to the corps of instruction. The officers who were in charge of the shops two years ago have been restored to their positions, with two exceptions, and Mrs. Hammond has resumed her former position as matron.

Kentucky School.—The following teachers resigned their positions at the close of school last June: Mr. Herbert E. Day, to accept a chair in Gallaudet College; Mr. Thos. P. Barbee, to attend a theological seminary preparatory to entering the

ministry of the Presbyterian Church; Mrs. W. K. Argo, to join her husband in his work at the head of the Colorado School; and Mrs. Anne W. Rogers, who retires from the profession. To fill the vacancies caused by the above resignations, the following appointments were made: Mr. Thos. S. McAloney, of the Alabama School; Miss M. L. Wardroper, of the Arkansas Institute; Miss Susan Doneghy, and Miss Elizabeth Reed, both of Danville, and recent graduates of the training class of the McCowen School.

Michigan School.—As the pupils were leaving for home, on June 7, Mr. John J. Buchanan, a graduate of the School, who had taught for thirty-two years there, fell dead on the front porch from apoplexy. He was very greatly beloved, and his sudden death at such a joyous time made this the saddest home-going the pupils of the Michigan School have ever known. The vacancy has been filled by the appointment of his son, Mr. Arthur P. Buchanan. The vacancy caused by the resignation of Miss Marion E. Tyrrell will be filled by promotion of younger teachers.

Plans and specifications for the new school building have been prepared, and bids will be opened on September 6. The building will be of three stories and will have an assembly hall, seating 600 on the floor and 250 in the gallery, forty-two class-rooms, office, reception room, library, apparatus room, two teachers' parlors, reading room, gymnasium 52 by 70, drill hall 62 by 76, plunge baths, etc. The interior finish will be red oak. The estimated cost is \$75,000, and the building will be ready for use at the opening of school in 1900.

The entire exterior of all the buildings has been painted a light straw color.

Minnesota School.—Mr. H. H. Donnelly, who has taught here for two years, has left the profession to study medicine in Columbia University. Miss Agatha M. Tiegel and Miss Nora Halterman have resigned to be married, and Miss Mary E. Griffin to teach in the Colorado School. Their places are taken by Mr. C. E. White, who taught in the Kansas School last year. Miss Edna Tieland is a recent graduate of Grinnell College, and Miss Mary Farnham, formerly of the St. Louis

and Florida schools. Miss Alice J. Mott, who recently received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from the University of Minnesota, resumes the work after an absence of two years spent in study. Miss Florence Heizer, who has been a teacher here for four years, died at her home in Mediapolis, Iowa, on August 11. She was a splendid woman and an excellent teacher.

Mississippi Institution.—Miss Anna C. Lancaster, who has been a successful teacher in the public schools of Mississippi for the past four years, has entered the Institution as a normal student and will remain during the year in that capacity.

Missouri School.—Mr. Samuel C. Bright, a valued teacher in this School, formerly a teacher in the Arkansas Institute, died July 28 at his home in Lewisburg, West Virginia. The vacancy has been filled by the election of Mr. D. C. McCue, a teacher of many years' experience, formerly connected with this School.

A blacksmith shop has been constructed at a cost of one thousand dollars, and instruction in that trade will be given the coming year.

Nebraska School.—Messrs. Norman Shreve, M. A., and Alvin E. Pope, M. A., both graduates of the University of Nebraska and of the Normal Department of Gallaudet College, have been appointed teachers in the Oral Department, and Mrs. Helen M. Drake, an experienced kindergartner, formerly inspector of kindergartens in the Omaha public schools, has been appointed principal of the Kindergarten Department. In order better to fit herself for the work, Mrs. Drake is taking a course of special training in the McCowen School.

New steam-heating and electric apparatus have been introduced; henceforth the machinery of the Industrial Department will be run by electric instead of steam power. The erection of a new schoolhouse has been begun and a new fence has been built around the grounds.

New Jersey School.—Mr. Weston Jenkins, who has been Principal of the School since its establishment in 1883 and has brought it to its present high state of efficiency, has resigned, and is succeeded by Mr. John P. Walker, a teacher of

long experience in the Pennsylvania Institution and for the past three years Principal of Morris Industrial Hall.

New York Institution.—Miss Ida Montgomery, after a successful career as a teacher in this Institution during a period of thirty-six years, retires from actual labor September 1, having been appointed to the honorary position of emeritus teacher, with an allowance of \$600 per annum. In thus making liberal provision for teachers who have rendered long and faithful service, this Institution sets an example which we wish might be generally followed. In the death of Mr. Charles Wesley Van Tassell, July 19, of cancer of the duodenum, the Institution lost a valued instructor. Mr. Van Tassell had been a teacher for thirty-three years and was held in high esteem, both for his qualities of heart and his marked success as a teacher of young deaf children. Miss Fayette Peck, for the past six years directress of the male kindergarten, has been granted leave of absence for one year to regain her health. Mr. Edward P. Clarke, M. A., late of the Utah School, and Miss Agnes March, of the New Jersey School, have been added to the corps of instruction.

The chapel of the Institution has undergone extensive alterations. A new floor has been laid and modern opera chairs have taken the place of the long wooden benches. The panellings of the platform and of the lower side walls have been replaced with new and more ornamental patterns.

New York Institution for Improved Instruction.—Mr. Harvey F. Mitchell, late Acting Principal, has been elected Superintendent, and Mr. A. E. Gruver, late in charge of the Primary Department, has been elected Principal. Miss M. E. Potwin, Mr. P. W. Carhart, Mr. B. Davis, and Miss Clara Bell have resigned their positions as teachers and the following new teachers have been appointed: Mr. Louis C. Butler and Miss M. B. Shaw, from the Pennsylvania Institution; Miss Frances Hinkley and Miss Edith Buell from the training class of the Clarke School; Miss Margaret Worcester, from the Maile School; Miss Julia Conway, from St. Joseph's Institute, New York; Miss Elizabeth Strickland from the training class of the Myrtle Court School; and Mr. T. F. Driscoll, a graduate of

this Institution. Miss Carrie E. Freck, of Pottsville, Pa., has been appointed substitute teacher and librarian.

North Carolina (Raleigh) Institution.—Mr. Chas. N. Williams, for some years a teacher in this Institution, has been elected to succeed the Rev. Jos. Perry as supervisor of the department for the deaf, and Mr. A. J. Sullivan, who was appointed a teacher temporarily last year, has been elected to a permanent position in place of Mrs. Rosa B. Cuffy, whose ill health last year caused her to retire.

North Carolina (Morganton) School.—Miss Nettie McDaniel, of the Alabama School, has been engaged to teach in the Oral Department, taking the place of Miss Eugenia Welch, who has leave of absence on account of ill health. Miss Carrie Stinson, who received her training in this School and has taught here three years, goes to the Washington State School.

The new school building has been completed, and will be occupied at the beginning of the session. The School has just installed a six-ton cold storage plant.

North Dakota School.—Miss Lillian W. Curd, of Fulton, Missouri, Miss Lilla McGowan, a graduate of Gallaudet College, and Mr. Walter Kilpatrick, formerly Supervisor in the Minnesota School, have been added to the corps of instructors.

A new wing has been added to the building, steam heat has been put in, and the old building has been completely refitted. The School now has room for about seventy pupils.

Oklahoma Institute.—Miss Louise K. Thompson, an experienced instructor of the deaf, has been appointed head teacher, and Miss Chettie Foster and Miss Bessie Taylor, late of the Kansas School, have been appointed assistant teachers.

Oregon School.—Mr. Clayton Wentz, M. A., formerly a teacher in the Ohio and Nebraska Institutions, has been elected Superintendent, and Mrs. Wentz, formerly a teacher in the Nebraska Institute, matron, *vice* Mr. and Mrs. Knight, retired.

Paris National Institution.—Dr. Ladreit de Lacharrière, who has been physician of the Institution for 37 years and is

the author of several valuable works relating to the deaf, has been relieved from active service. The medical service has been reorganized on a new basis, Dr. Leroux receiving the appointment of general physician, and Dr. E. Mérière that of otologist. Dr. Mérière is a son of the celebrated Dr. P. Mérière, who was the physician of the Institution from 1838 to 1862.

Rhode Island Institute.—Miss Kitty Young, of Warwick, England, who was a member of the training class last year, returns to take the place of Miss Flint, who has resigned on account of ill health. Miss Elizabeth Peet, daughter of the late Dr. Isaac Lewis Peet, takes charge of the first class, and Miss Florence Russell also comes as a teacher.

Royal Cross Institution.—A central hall and two new wings to the main building have recently been added at a cost of about \$20,000, the gift of the Ven. Archdeacon Rawstorne, the first and now life chairman of the board of management. The central hall is 50 feet long by 25 broad, and has class-rooms on three sides. The class-rooms are so arranged with movable glazed partitions that they can be made an addition to the hall, thus affording seats for 500 people. The new buildings were opened with addresses from the Earl of Derby and others, July 29, 1899.

Texas School.—Miss Olivia Orr has resigned her position as teacher to be married. Mr. George A. Brooks and Mr. William H. Davis, graduates of this School and of Gallaudet College, have been appointed teachers.

A new dormitory building, with accommodations for 125 new pupils, and a new industrial building, both equipped with all necessary conveniences, are in process of erection, and considerable improvements are being made in the old buildings.

Utah School.—Mr. William S. Marshall, who began his work as a teacher of the deaf in the Indiana Institution in 1859, and has since taught in the Missouri, Iowa, and Utah schools, has retired from active labor to enjoy well-earned repose at his home in Pomona, California, where he has an orange orchard. Mr. Edward P. Clarke has resigned to accept a position in the New York Institution. These vacancies have

been filled by the appointment of Mr. Frank M. Driggs, formerly a teacher in this School and lately in the Illinois Institution, and Mr. William N. Marshall, late of the Washington State School.

A new hospital building is under construction at a cost of about \$5,000.

Virginia School.—Mr. H. A. Bear, who has been a teacher in this school for more than forty years, has retired from the work, and Mr. Ezra S. Henne, late of the Illinois Institution, has been appointed a teacher. Mr. Henne assists half of each day in the senior class and the other half in the Articulation Department.

The term of instruction has been lengthened from eight to ten years.

Waratah Institution.—There is a school for the deaf at Waratah, New South Wales. It is under Catholic auspices and is supported by charitable contributions. The superintendent is Sister M. Columba Dwyer. The Combined System of instruction is followed.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A Hopeful Sign of the Times.—We trust the day will come when the continuance in office of a faithful and efficient head of a school for the deaf will everywhere be so much a matter of course as to occasion no comment in the *Annals*, as is already the case in a large part of the United States; but the history of the Indiana Institution in former years, and the more recent history of the institutions in certain other of the Central States, make the re-election of Mr. Johnson as Superintendent of the Indiana Institution for the next four years a significant fact of hopeful promise for the education of the deaf. The effort to raid the State institutions for party purposes has been no less strong in Indiana within recent years than formerly, and no less strong than in other States where it has unhappily succeeded; that it has failed in Indiana is due to the firmness of Governor Mount, who appointed a non-

partisan board of trustees, and assured them, in spite of the clamor of the spoilsmen, that he would support them in the faithful administration of their trust. The following extract from an editorial in the *Indianapolis News* states the case fairly and forcibly :

Mr. Johnson first came to the Institution sixteen years ago at a time of political turmoil, when the good rule of merit and long continuous service had for some years been broken up, and the Institution made a byword and a reproach among its class in the country for the way in which it was given over as political spoils. Mr. Johnson had the good fortune to be the first one appointed in this bad era that was able to make a stand against it, and to maintain his place, and thus the fact of his continuous service is a thing of value apart from the excellent condition that he has brought about, and the advanced stand that the Institution has taken under his management.

The re-election of Mr. Jones as Superintendent of the Ohio Institution for the next four years is also a hopeful sign ; but we shall regard it as still more hopeful if, as we hope will be the case, he is again re-elected after sixteen years of service, especially if the State at that time is under the control of a different political party.

Day-Schools.—A strenuous effort was made this year to persuade the legislatures of California, Minnesota, and Michigan to enact laws authorizing the establishment of day-schools on the Wisconsin plan. In California and Minnesota the effort was unsuccessful ; in Michigan the following act was passed on the last day of the session :

AN ACT

Authorizing School District Boards, Boards of Trustees of Graded Schools, and Boards of Education in Cities to establish and maintain Day-Schools for the Deaf, and authorizing payment therefor from the general fund.

The people of the State of Michigan enact :

SECTION 1. That upon application by a school district board, board of trustees of a graded school, or board of education of any city, of this State, to the Superintendent of Public Instruction, he shall grant permission to such board to establish and maintain, and such board shall thereupon be empowered to maintain within the limits of its jurisdiction one or more day-schools, having an average attendance of not less than

three pupils, for the instruction of deaf persons over the age of three years, whose parents, or guardians in the case of orphans, are residents of the State of Michigan.

SECTION 2. Any board which shall maintain one or more day-schools for the instruction of the deaf shall report to the superintendent of public instruction annually, and at such other times as he may direct, such facts concerning the school or schools as he may require.

SECTION 3. The State Treasurer is hereby authorized and directed to apportion and pay out of the "general fund" annually to the treasurer of any board maintaining a school or schools, which shall be established in accordance with this act, the sum of one hundred and fifty dollars for each deaf pupil instructed in any such school for nine months during the school year, and a part of such sum proportionate to the time of instruction of any such pupil so instructed less than nine months during each year.

SECTION 4. The money received from the State Treasurer, as provided in section three of this act, shall be kept separate and distinct from all other funds by the treasurer of the board receiving it, and shall be known as "the fund for the support of schools for the deaf," and shall be paid out for no other purpose than for the payment of salaries of teachers of schools for the deaf, as herein provided, and for school appliances, and all sums not expended under this act shall be returned to the State Treasurer and credited to the primary school interest fund.

SECTION 5. All teachers in such schools shall be appointed and employed as other public school teachers are appointed and employed. All persons appointed to teach in any such school shall have had special training for teaching, and shall also have had special training in the teaching of the deaf, including at least one year's experience as a teacher in a school for the deaf. The so-called "oral" system shall be taught by such teachers, and if after a fair trial of nine months, any of such children shall for any reason be unable to learn such oral method, then no further expense shall be incurred in the effort to teach such child so unable to learn such oral method in such primary schools.

SECTION 6. For the purpose of this act, any person of sound mind, who, by reason of defective hearing, cannot profitably be educated in the public schools, as other children are, shall be considered deaf.

This act is ordered to take immediate effect.

At a meeting of the Board of Education of Brooklyn, New York, held July 5, 1899, a committee, of which Mr. H. A. D. Hollman was made chairman, was appointed to consider the desirability of establishing classes for the deaf in the public schools of that borough.

Conventions of the Deaf.—The Sixth Convention of the National Association of the Deaf was held at St Paul, Minne-

sota, July 11-14, 1899. It was a large and enthusiastic meeting. The Constitution and By-Laws were revised and many resolutions relating to the interests of the deaf were adopted. Mr. James L. Smith, of Minnesota, was elected President and Mr. Thomas F. Fox, of New York, Secretary. A full report of the proceedings is given in the *Deaf-Mutes' Journal* of July 20.

Successful conventions of State associations were also held during the summer in Maine, Missouri, New Hampshire, New York, and Pennsylvania.

The Church Mission.—The Church Mission to Deaf-Mutes, New York, has received \$70,000 for the benefit of the Gallaudet Home, as part payment of a legacy from the estate of Charles H. Conoit.

A Paris Congress in 1900.—Mr. Picard, Commissioner General of the Paris Exposition of 1900, has appointed a committee of organization for a "Congress for the Study of Questions of Education and Aid of Deaf-Mutes." The committee, at a meeting held July 3, 1899, decided that the Congress should consist of two sections, one composed of friends and teachers of the deaf, and the other of the deaf themselves. Of the first section, Mr. Colmet d'Aage has been appointed President, and Dr. Ladreit de Lacharrière, Secretary; of the second section, Mr. Dusuzeau is President, and Mr. Henri Jeanvoine, Secretary. The Congress will be held August 6-8, 1900. The American members of the committee on the programme of the Congress of the Deaf have organized with the Rev. Austin W. Mann as chairman and Mr. George W. Veditz as secretary.

Helen Keller.—Miss Helen A. Keller has passed the final examinations for admission to Radcliffe College, the requirements for which are identical with those for admission to Harvard. This time the examinations were taken without the intervention of an interpreter, the questions being presented in American Braille. Though Helen labored under the disadvantage of having no previous acquaintance with this form of

the alphabet, being accustomed only to the English Braille, she passed the examination successfully in every study, receiving special credit in advanced Latin and the high mark of "B" in advanced Greek. Mr. Joseph Edgar Chamberlin, whose interesting sketch of "Helen Keller as She Really Is" was printed in the June number of the *Annals*, writes in the *Boston Evening Transcript* of August 5:

The question may well be asked, Will Helen Keller now take the regular college course? Who will interpret to her the lectures in foreign languages which she cannot hear? No one can do this. No lecture, even in English, can be translated to her in the manual alphabet as rapidly as it is spoken. Her usual interpreter knows no foreign tongue. Who will read to her all the required matter of the courses of reading, none of which has been put into raised print? It is beyond mechanical possibility to give her all this through her fingers. The obstacles appear insurmountable. But that is the principal reason why Helen Keller is inclined to surmount them.

The Deaf in Japan.—Dr. Frederic H. Wines has received from the Prison Association of Japan a copy of the rules governing the Japanese prisons, printed in Japanese and English, in parallel columns. Article I divides the prisons into six classes, of which the sixth is the *Chojijo* or "Educational house," which "is appointed for the correction of the infants and dumb exempt from penalty." By the "dumb" are probably meant uneducated deaf-mutes, who are regarded as irresponsible on account of their misfortune, and therefore incapable of committing crime.

A New French Periodical.—A periodical published monthly, except in August and September, and entitled *Revue Générale de l'Enseignement des Sourds-Muets*, has been begun by the instructors of the National Institution at Paris. "It will be," says the prospectus, "freely open to the discussion of all processes and all methods; an arena where the most opposite and contradictory theories may have a fair field. The greatest courtesy will temper the heat of polemics, and absolute liberty of argument will have as a counterpoise absolute respect for individuals." The *Revue* is handsomely printed in the printing office of the Institution; the price is 6 francs a

year. Subscriptions may be addressed to M. l'Administrateur de la Revue Générale de l'Enseignement des Sourds-Muets, 254, Rue Saint-Jacques, Paris, France.

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A gentleman of long experience in oral teaching, at present engaged in one of the first schools in the United Kingdom, seeks an opening in the United States. He possesses good government reports and can furnish excellent references. Address P. O. S., care of the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

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Mr. J. HEIDSIEK's "Hearing Deaf-Mutes. A contribution toward the Elucidation of the Question of Methods," translated from the German by George W. Veditz, M. A., and published in the *Annals* for April, June, and September of last year, has been reprinted in pamphlet form. Copies may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at 25 cents each, postage included.

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE WORLD'S CONGRESS OF INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF and of the Thirteenth Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, held at Chicago, Illinois, July 17, 19, 21, and 24, 1893, price one dollar; to subscribers to the *Annals*, half price. Add 11 cents for the prepayment of postage. Address the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

Mr. JAMES DENISON'S "Manual Alphabet as a Part of the Public-School Course," published in the *Annals* for October, 1886, has been reprinted in pamphlet form, accompanied by the beautiful manual alphabet drawn and engraved from photographs under the direction of Dr. J. C. GORDON. Copies may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at ten cents each, postage included.

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

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A COMPARISON OF DEAF AND HEARING CHILDREN IN THEIR NINTH YEAR.*—I.

THIS comparison relates to the physical strength and soundness, manual dexterity, observation, and memory, and first-year school work of deaf and hearing children.

By the regulations of the Minnesota School for the Deaf, a child is admitted when eight years of age. As a matter of fact, a few are admitted under this age, and many do not avail themselves of the privilege until much older. It is the opinion of the school authorities that the best results accrue from the ten years' course when taken from the ages of eight or ten to eighteen or twenty. But, from my own experience of primary work with the deaf, I regard it as far less injurious to defer putting a deaf child in school until the age of twelve than to subject him to the routine of the schoolroom at six or seven.

I entered upon the inquiry here recorded without any hobby to ride and with no particular bias except a general unfounded prejudice against "infant education." I have made no attempt to reach hard-and-fast conclusions, or to uphold any side of any question which may arise; but I cannot avoid mentioning the one conviction to which

* Extracted from "The Ninth Year in a Deaf Child's Life," a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, University of Minnesota. 1899.

my inquiry has brought me ;—namely, that the mind of a child suffers no deterioration from lying fallow for its first eight years. The popular enthusiasm for the education of babies, which has enlisted in the kindergarten the best teaching talent of America, (much to the detriment, I must think, of primary and intermediate schools) is founded upon the principle that, educationally speaking, the first years of life are most important ; or, in other words, that infant development, mental and moral, is less independent, less instinctive, more conditioned upon the conscious efforts of the instructor, than the mind of the youth. Against this commonly accepted principle I am hardly quixotic enough to tilt : I simply note that, however rusty be the unused faculties of the adult deaf, I have collected no evidence that the untaught deaf child of eight—though ignorant beyond conception—is less capable of imbibing knowledge or adopting codes of conduct than the ordinary eight-year-old product of schoolroom, Sunday School, and kindergarten.

I have chosen for the especial subjects of this essay ten deaf children who entered school last fall ; eight of them were eight years of age, one was nine at the time of entering, and one ten.

They are all totally deaf, and have been so from infancy. I should have been glad to consider a larger number, but the ten selected include nearly all the class which entered in September, 1898, at the proper age, and in all perceptible ways these ten appeared to me and to their teacher to be strictly average deaf children.

I say *nearly* the whole entering class, and proceed to explain why any exceptions have been made. If any child—even though born quite deaf—shows peculiar aptitude for speech, he is placed in an oral class upon entering ; in this class signs are wholly eschewed, and he is taught entirely by speech and writing. Thus the difficulties in the way of communication, great enough in any case, are

so enhanced as to make it really infeasible to include these subjects in the tests. Besides, my experience in the past has touched only manual classes, and my opinions in regard to oral classes would be founded upon hearsay.

Four children, eight years of age, were placed in an oral class this year, and thus lost to me.

Again, every class of deaf children contains, upon entering, a certain proportion of subjects of feeble intellect. The disease which caused deafness may have affected the mind; moreover, parents of dumb children always send them to a school for the deaf in preference to an asylum for imbeciles, cherishing the hope that the children are not dull, but only deaf. These are weeded out in the course of a year or two, but it will be seen that a first-year class nearly always contains a modicum of mental abnormality not to be found in an eight-year-old class of hearing children of two years' standing in school.

Since I excluded from my examination the four speaking deaf children, supposed to be the brightest of the new pupils, I have also ignored two very dull children, who would probably, if not deaf, have been placed in an institution for the feeble-minded.

For reasons apparent, I also omitted the new pupils of advanced age; these afford an exceedingly interesting study, but outside the scope of this paper.

I have aimed to centre my attention upon *average* deaf children, eight years of age, and to compare them with average eight-year-old hearing children.

My object has been to find tests of physical and mental powers, applicable both to the hearing and to the deaf, to the normal child and to the child cut off forever from all auditory impressions. The tests chosen have been few and simple, since only such could be thoroughly applied, but they seemed to me significant as well as representative. They have fallen into three groups:

1. Purely physical tests of bodily strength and agility.

2. Tests of manual dexterity, involving some sight discrimination.

3. Tests of memory and observation.

These are the only mental powers capable of exact comparison between the two classes of children. As regards the faculties of imagination and reason, difficulties of communication with both deaf and hearing would render such a test impossible; but that reason and imagination concern themselves wholly with matters of observation and memory, I suppose no one in this age of philosophy will question; hence the comparison may not be so one-sided as at first appears.

I had more difficulty, as well as more latitude of choice, in regard to the normal children examined. The ten hearing boys included in the athletic tests were chosen upon their reputation among their play-fellows, as being "awful strong" and "fine shooters."

The tests in observation and memory were taken in two second and third grade schoolrooms, containing mostly eight-year-old children. One of these schoolrooms contained a majority of Irish and French children; the second, mostly American and Scandinavian. I may add that the second schoolroom was named by the Superintendent of Schools as comprising the best eight-year-old class in the city.

I feel assured of having given the hearing class all fair benefits in the tests. If anything, the odds have been against the deaf—simply as deaf—as I think will be perceived from the following statement. The thirty children examined in schoolroom number two were all city children, surrounded by good social influences from their birth. Among them were three children of practising physicians, three of school-teachers, four of lawyers, two of college professors, four of successful and wealthy merchants, and two of ministers of the gospel. From reference to the "family conditions" of the deaf children it will be per-

ceived that the parents of seven are given as "poor," and the fathers of three as well-to-do farmers, while four of the ten children are county charges. The fathers of four are poor farmers, the remaining three being offspring of farm laborers. Nine of the ten are of foreign parentage; all are country children.

1. *Summary of Physical Examination.*

I found the average weight of the deaf children 54.35 pounds. J. A. Gilbert ("Scripture Studies at Yale, 1892-'3") gives the average weight of New Haven children eight years of age as 53 pounds; of children nine years of age as 60.48 pounds. Dr. Gilbert, in the same article, quotes the weights of Boston and Milwaukee children as 52.98 pounds and 52.34 pounds for eight-year-olds; 58.15 pounds and 57.95 pounds for nine-year-olds.

As I presume all children less than nine to have been ranked as eight years old in these tables, I find the deaf average fairly up to the hearing. I should add that these weights were taken when the children arrived in the fall; they will be taken again in June, and an astonishing advance may be predicted; but this would be the case with any child at boarding-school.

As regards height, I find the deaf average 48.75 inches. The eight-year-old children of New Haven average 48.65 inches in height; those of Boston, 47.67 inches; those of Milwaukee, 47.82 inches. The nine-year-old children of New Haven average 51.2 inches; those of Boston, 49.53 inches; those of Milwaukee, 49.9 inches.

I find the head circumference of the deaf children to average 51.8 centimeters, or $20\frac{3}{4}$ inches. I measured all the eight and nine year old heads in Faribault to the number of nearly one hundred, and find the average circumference also 51.8 centimeters.

The physical examination yields the fact that, so far as examinations of normal children eight years old have been

tabulated, the ten deaf children are physically normal in all respects except deafness. There is not the slightest evidence that their sense defect has interfered in any way with their general health, growth, size, or bodily development. They are fully up to the normal average, and are rather over than under sized.

2. *Athletic Tests.*

A physical comparison of deaf and hearing children would be meaningless without some tests of their comparative available activity. As no formulæ of ordinary childish capability have been made, and as apparatus was lacking for muscular tests, I fell back upon contests between my ten deaf boys and picked hearing boys of the same age. The tests were, I am aware, somewhat unscientific, but perhaps they serve the purposes of general comparison better than if I had been confined to the use of apparatus without the spirit of contest.

Owing also to the loose nature of the tests, I am obliged to state results generally, rather than in exact terms. I do not feel, however, that this vagueness vitiates the results, for repeated trials yielded the same general outcome.

The athletic tests included running, jumping, pushing, pulling, throwing a weight, throwing at a mark, and judging of direction and distance with the eyes bandaged; also, judging of tastes with the eyes and nose bandaged.

The tests were conducted as follows:

1. The twenty boys were blindfolded and held their own noses; each received upon his tongue, in succession, a piece of soft white bread, part of the white and the yolk of an egg, a piece of cold potato, a piece of cheese, and a piece of fresh fish. The score stood as follows:

Two failures on the part of the deaf to distinguish the white of egg and one failure to distinguish the yolk; three failures on the part of the hearing to distinguish

the white of egg, one to distinguish the yolk, and one to distinguish potato.

2. Next, the children were taken to a dark cellar full of pitfalls; these were guarded but they did not know it. Each saw an egg placed in a jar at as great a distance from his position as the limits of the room allowed (about 22 feet). He was then blindfolded and turned around several times to confuse him; then he set out in search of his egg. Every one found the egg, and only five, two deaf and three hearing, showed any uncertainty as to their direction. Two—both deaf—walked directly toward the object, and found it without making a false step. This result surprised me somewhat, as I had expected the deaf to be more confused than the hearing.

3. The running test followed, in which the deaf were hopelessly outdistanced. It may be that no amount of training could make really good runners of the deaf, but in these boys I particularly noticed the lack of *racing feeling*, if I may so speak. The boys traversed a bridge 150 feet long, picked up an orange (this to insure fairness at the turning point), and returned to the start. The deaf made a good showing until they reached the oranges, but always slacked up then, and returned at a jog trot, while the hearing boys, urged on by the shouts of their comrades, redoubled their efforts on the home stretch.

Separate races yielded the same result as the race *en masse*. The hearing were always a little in advance and sometimes a long way. Only one of the races was won by a deaf boy; the fastest deaf runner defeated the fastest hearing runner.

A " tug of war " resulted in a decided triumph of the ten deaf boys over the hearing. The same result attended the pushing contest. In other words, the deaf boys were heavier than the hearing boys of the same age, and stronger than the hearing boys of the same weight.

These pushing and pulling tests were taken on Monday

and *seriatim* with the same unvs the deaf boys pulled a long rope struggling at the other end of i and pushed the same line of hear side of the room, as many times as

The individual deaf boys handl nents (when matched by weight

I see no reason why deaf boy the hearing, unless the more reg life give them the advantage.

4. The boys threw a weight tance thrown being the deside parent difference in the success rather height and weight prov all took their places on their the twenty, a hearing boy, c next five nine-year-olds (two almost in a line at right angl weight ; next came four dea three hearing and two deaf, all standing nearly in the stairs.

5. Throwing at a mark v ing boys ; three of the ni



picked deaf boys twelve years of age and an equal number of hearing boys of the same age.

My object in the second test was to note the advantage of play-fellowship in developing the latent capabilities of the deaf, but no such advantage became apparent, the results being substantially the same as with the younger children. The pulling, pushing, running, and throwing contests resulted almost precisely as they had done previously. The deaf had gained somewhat in running, though still easily beaten. The hearing had gained in pushing and pulling, but were still out-pushed and out-pulled.

Schoolboy games of skill had given the hearing twelve-year-olds an added accuracy of aim in shooting marbles, throwing and catching a ball, etc., while the fifth-year deaf boys were not much superior to the new-comers.

The sense of direction was still further tested by requiring each boy to walk to a given spot blindfold, and carry a small block on his head. When the block slipped to one side a trifle the bearer turned in that direction, as though the slight extra impulse led him to walk in a circle. As before, the deaf boys kept their sense of direction as well as the hearing, but did not steady their weight as well. Three let the block drop and one could not take three steps without losing it, though we gave him three trials. It is proverbial that the deaf walk unsteadily after dark, but it would seem that the unsteadiness is not necessarily accompanied by any failure of the sense of locality.

I may, perhaps, properly mention here two or three observations upon matters not included in the program of sports, but which seemed to me not without significance. They pertain equally to children of both ages:

First. In order to ensure equality of conditions, I prescribed a certain position to be assumed by all alike in each test. All of the hearing boys (except the one se-

lected to recommend a position) immediately objected to it as "no good," and required repeated reminders before deigning to assume it. The deaf, without exception, merely from the first general direction, took the attitude with scrupulous accuracy.

Second. The spirit of combat—the interest in the game, as a game—was much greater on the part of the hearing; their determination to win was much stronger, their dissatisfaction over defeat more evident. The deaf always asked me if they had "done it right," and rested satisfied with my assurance that they had, not troubling themselves with the fact that their competitors had done better.

Finally, as the children departed from the scene of their contests, each deaf boy shook hands, wished me "good afternoon," and thanked me for a "pleasant time;" shyness or thoughtlessness caused the hearing boys to dispense with these courtesies.

If I am at liberty to draw any generalizations from these tests, they are as follows: Whereas hearing children, through constant attention to boyish sports, have strongly developed the spirit of rivalry, so important all through life, their eternal practice in playing has also given them a skill in judging distances and direction, an accuracy of aim, a steadiness of hand, a strength and agility of limb, which no amount of set instruction and gymnastics could convey. The deaf, on the other hand, inferior in all these respects, have more self-control, more discipline, more concentration of purpose. They do not *play* as well as hearing children, but *work* better, and require less incentive to effort, other than the wish of a superior. Their sense of duty, obedience, and courtesy becomes early and strongly developed.

I think the younger children in a deaf institution do little real, earnest playing, possibly because their well-ordered lives, full day, and industrial training leave them more inclined for rest than recreation in their leisure

... two positions, the one at
... close.
practice :

Close.
.....U
.....I
'I

te invariably take place as follows :

I.	II.
downward	front
own	diagonally upward back.
ont	“ “ “

each-reading exercises.

s: A, E, I, U, O, A^e, O^e, U^e, EU, AU, EI.
owing one another: A O, I U, A^e EU,

lowing one another: A E U, AU E EI,

the difference between hard and soft

nce	hard	soft
contact	small	great
	passive	active

child's ; he does not know how to play and he likes to work. He is kept steadily at work, and in hours of leisure is inclined to rest. Yet this lack of practice has not resulted in a weakening of the tissues nor a stunting of the size. The strength of the deaf boy at twelve years of age is simply waiting to be used. And if ambition and competition are roused in the older boys (by teachers who have been themselves college athletes) these still are capable of learning how to play.

In testing accuracy of taste the deaf were two points ahead of the hearing, and three points ahead in determining direction and distance with eyes closed.

ALICE J. MOTT,

Instructor in the Minnesota School, Faribault, Minnesota.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

FACIAL SPEECH-READING.*—III.

It will, no doubt, prove of great practical value if, as a supplement to what I have said of the external physiology of speech-sounds, I now briefly give an illustration of the method of teaching speech-reading.

A. Individual Sounds.

In presenting a method for speech-reading instruction, we must constantly assume, as a basis, what I have brought to a conclusion in the preceding part—the acquisition of perfect familiarity with the external characteristics of individual sounds. Why it is of the greatest importance first to practise upon and familiarize one's self with the vowels I have already stated, but will here recapitulate.

In the first place, the vowels are very easily read ; I assume that this has been made evident to every one. The vowel movements are distinct and protracted ; they give

* Concluded from the September number of the *Annals*, page 335.

Each word its character alike to the eye and to the ear. Every full-sounding word involves a considerable number of vowel movements. Every person who articulates distinctly will give special emphasis to the enunciation of vowels, and thus will impress auditors more pleasantly, and will be more readily understood by the speech-reader. Why it is that vowels are of the greatest importance in all languages I cannot here consider, but will refer to Thau-sing, Techmer, Sievers, Steinthal, and others. Some additional matters in this connection will be presented further on; though they will only be such as relate to our special purpose of speech-reading, they may, nevertheless, contribute somewhat toward solving many an interesting question in phonetics.

It is, of course, understood that only the most practical and simplest forms should be presented to those whom we would instruct. Nevertheless, I regard it as highly advantageous to have the learner not only familiarize himself with them visually, but also commit them to memory. The manner in which I would have this understood I will here exemplify by a few exercises.

Example of an Exercise in Individual Sounds.

A (as in mama).

Front	{	Lower jaw depressed.
and		
Lateral	{	Mouth at rest.

U (English OO).

Lateral	{	Lower jaw projecting forward.
		Mouth projecting forward proboscis-like.
		Cheek surface drawn forward.
Front	{	Mouth aperture very small.
		Lips puffed out.
		Mouth - corners strongly drawn toward each
		other.



O.

- Lateral { Lower jaw downward and forward.
 Mouth forward (less than in U).
 Cheek surface drawn forward (less than in U). —
- Front { Mouth aperture oval.
 Mouth-corners nearer each other than in A.

I (English E).

- Lateral { Lower jaw diagonally upward and backward.
 Mouth drawn backward.
 Mouth-corners diagonally upward and backward. —
 Cheek surface drawn diagonally upward and backward. (Objective point, the cheek bone.) }
- Front { The two rows of teeth approaching each other.
 Mouth-corners wide apart (somewhat upward).
 Mouth aperture no longer oval, but in the form of a slit.

E (English A).

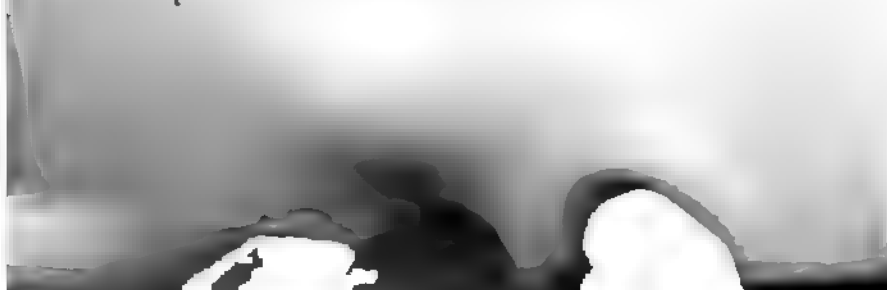
- Lateral { Lower jaw upward.
 Lips drawn somewhat backward.
 Skin shows tension backward. (Objective point, ear-lobes.)
- Front { The two rows of teeth nearer each other than in A, wider than in I.
 Mouth-corners wider apart than in A.
 Mouth aperture slit-like.

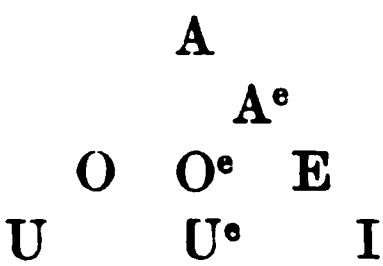
Questions.

Tell me what you see in the A utterance.

"	"	"	U	"
"	"	"	O	"
"	"	"	E	"
"	"	"	I	"

Here follows the explanation of the vowel triangle in the simplest form :





Questions.

- What lies between A and E?
- What lies between O and E?
- What lies between U and I?

Double vowels always have two positions, the one at starting and the other at the close.
Observe accordingly and practice :

	Start.	Close.
Au :	A.....	U
Ei :	A.....	I
Eu :	O°.....	I

Two movements here invariably take place as follows :

	I.	II.
Au	downward	front
Ai	down	diagonally upward back.
Eu	front	“ “ “

Speech-reading exercises.

Individual vowels : A, E, I, U, O, A°, O°, U°, EU, AU, EI.

Two vowels following one another : A O, I U, A° EU, AI O°, AU U°, etc.

Three vowels following one another : A E U, AU E EI, O A° EU, etc.

Table showing the difference between hard and soft consonants :

1. Consistence	hard	soft
2. Area of contact	small	great
3. Motion	passive	active

Hard stopped or shut sounds are : P, T, K.

Soft stopped or shut sounds are : B, D, G.

In stopped sounds there are invariably two distinguishable movements :

1. The *formation* of the closure.
2. The *releasing* of the closure.

P.

Formation of the closure.

Lateral { Lips drawn backward against the teeth.
Lower jaw at rest.

Front { Lip-red narrowed.
Chin at rest.

Releasing of the closure.

Lateral { Lower jaw downward.
Cheeks slightly puffed.

Front { Lips separated directly upward and downward.
Chin directly downward.

B.

Formation.

Lateral { Lips resting upon one another.
Lower jaw somewhat upward.

Front { Lip-red not narrowed.
Chin somewhat elevated.

Releasing.

Lateral { Lower jaw at rest.
Cheeks show slight movement forward.

Front { Lips move forward, rolling apart.
Chin remains at rest.

Exercise. Compare severally the points of difference between P and B.

Speech-reading exercise.

PA, BA, PO, PAU, BAU, PEI, BEI, BI, BA°, PEU, etc.

Papa, Puppe, Baubau, Pappe, Baba, etc.

I trust this will suffice to show how I conduct, and would have others conduct, methodical exercises on the external characteristics of individual sounds. All of these statements, lessons, questions, and exercises are, of course, dictated to the pupils, and entered in their notebooks.

B. Syllable Pictures.

In identically the same manner as individual sounds have just been practised, I would have exercises to practise certain syllables, which frequently and regularly occur in language. I mean those syllables which in grammar are usually designated as prefixes and suffixes. The former, for instance, are b, ge, ent, an, um, etc.; the latter, thum, heit, keit, ung, nen, en, er, etc. All of these syllables, of which there are a great number, and which naturally in the course of instruction should all receive attention, possess characteristics peculiar to each. It seems hardly necessary to speak further of their importance in the matter of speech-reading; suffice it to say that, without methodically practising them, perfect skill in the art of speech-reading cannot be attained. The labor they exact of both instructor and scholar, in cases where the latter attains even moderate skill in reading individual sounds, is comparatively little, while the compensation is great. They must, of course be practised until, like the stenographer's symbols, they are under ready command, more especially those syllables which in ordinary speech are usually uttered most rapidly and indistinctly.

C. The Visibility of the Accent.

Just as the emphasizing of a word manifests itself to the hearer by stronger sound-waves, so it does to the speech-reader by a stronger movement and more distinct picture of the vowel involved.

This observation must also lead to methodical exercise in speech-reading, and that, too, in divers ways, as, for instance, in giving the speech-reader meaningless words to read, in which he must be required to designate the accented syllable according to the vowel or to its position. When once progress has been made with word and sentence pictures, this faculty can be further cultivated by having the emphasized words in an uttered sentence designated.

D. Word Pictures.

By means of these preliminary exercises in reading syllabic pictures and accented syllables, the pupil will have arrived at a stage when, with but little additional practice, he will, to the delight of others and of himself, soon also be able to read words indistinctly uttered. One rule must here again be called to attention, which is of the greatest importance for the rapid acquisition of skill in speech-reading, and that is: *The number of vowels equals the number of syllables.*

Of course, great additional latitude in combinations is given to persons who have great command of language; nevertheless, it is directed, as it were, into a given channel, and thus less frequently leads to misunderstanding.

E. Conclusion.

Finally, we proceed to the acquisition of certain sentence pictures, and, of course, such will be selected as are most important in the practical affairs of life. Much

more might be added or, at least, enlarged upon, but I have purposely kept the latter part of this paper strictly aphoristic. Any person of experience will graduate the progress to suit himself, and adapt the same to each individual case ; but the method pursued, according to my view, must be based upon the principles herein briefly and suggestively given. I will not close this labor without giving expression to an opinion, based upon practical experience, in regard to the erroneous view held by some aurists, who maintain that hard-of-hearing persons have their remaining hearing power impaired by acquiring speech-reading ability. This view is held upon the hypothesis that hard-of-hearing people, when they can readily read speech, give their hearing power less exercise, and hence, owing to inactivity, there ensues atrophy of the remaining power of hearing that they possess. Despite extensive practice and experience, I have been unable to verify this ; in fact, just the contrary proves to be the case : owing to the speech-reading facility acquired, the remainder of the hearing power has been more fully utilized and improved.

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THE RELATION OF HARTFORD TO THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF.*

THAT the true principles of American democracy were first enunciated at Hartford, and that the scheme of federal organization in 1787 finally adopted was originally presented by the Connecticut delegation, are facts of history complacently regarded, and frequently mentioned. True to this inventive temperament, though in relations

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less conspicuous, it was the privilege and honor of Connecticut and of Hartford, in 1817, to recognize, introduce, and perfect a special method of education which has resulted in the restoration to manhood and to social life of a certain proportion of the general population otherwise useless and dangerous, which, though not increasing in ratio and perhaps diminishing, amounts at present in the United States to 40,000, or one in fifteen hundred. This enterprise, this home enterprise, I am invited to describe.

Katherine, a deaf-mute daughter of Henry III. of England, and a sister of Edward I., sleeps to-day in Westminster Abbey. Her father built the Abbey itself and organized the English Parliament. He loved his daughter dearly, but he established no school for her relief. Four centuries later, in Rowley, Massachusetts, Dr. Philip Nelson attempted to teach speech to Isaac Kilburn, a deaf-mute. But the local church quickly took alarm, and, by denouncing, suspended the blasphemy of attempting a miracle which the Lord Jesus alone could perform. A similar effort in Boston ended, in 1809, with the death of the prime mover, Francis Green. Another attempt at Cobbs, Va., in 1812, proved abortive by reason of the personal disqualification of the teacher, a foreign adventurer.

No such lack of interest, intelligence, or fortune operated to check the efforts of Dr. Mason F. Cogswell, of Hartford, and his immediate friends to provide adequate education for his daughter Alice, who had lost her hearing in 1807, at the age of two years. A publication of the Abbé Sicard, principal of the Royal Institution at Paris, had convinced him of the feasibility of establishing at home a school for all deaf children, his Alice included. Inquiries made, at his suggestion, by members of the General Association of Congregational Clergymen of Connecticut had resulted, in 1812, in the report of a committee that eighty-four deaf-mutes were resident in the State, with a probable four hundred in New England, and two

thousand in the whole country. Twenty per cent. of these would be of school age.

As years passed, Alice attracted increasing notice among her friends, two of whom, Mr. Thomas H. Gallaudet, a graduate of Yale, and Miss Lydia Huntley, later Mrs. Sigourney, had succeeded in teaching her a few words and sentences. In the spring of 1815 Dr. Cogswell invited to his house, to confer definitely and finally upon the establishment of a school, the following gentlemen: Ward Woodbridge, Daniel Wadsworth, Henry Hudson, Nathaniel Terry, John Caldwell, Daniel Buck, Nathan Strong, Thomas H. Gallaudet, all of Hartford, and Joseph Battel, of Norfolk. Mr. Gallaudet, twenty-seven years of age, had graduated from Andover Theological Seminary the previous year, and, remaining at home in Hartford, had taken a lively interest in the education of Alice. The enterprise was promptly adopted, the necessary preliminary funds were raised, Daniel Wadsworth, whose memory this building commemorates, heading the list with \$300, and young Gallaudet, eminently qualified in every way to undertake the enterprise, was selected and sent abroad May 25 to acquire the art of deaf-mute education.

In Edinburgh he found the art a strict monopoly in the Braidwood family. In London he could obtain, to return with him, a teacher of uncertain qualifications, but years of difficulty, with no spirit of accommodation, were thrown in the way of his own acquisition of adequate normal training. Turning to France in March of the following year, 1816, he was generously welcomed by the Abbé Sicard, at Paris, and afforded every facility for inspecting and studying the classes of the Royal Institution, as well as for special personal tuition. At that date oral speech was scantily employed, written and spelled language considerably, while pantomime, including a peculiar system of methodical signs since abandoned, was very freely used by both teacher and pupil. Laurent Clerc, a brilliant

graduate of the school, and for eight years a teacher in it of the highest rank, was induced to come to America. In him Dr. Gallaudet secured a teacher of ripe experience—and—a matter of great importance—a living illustration of the possibilities of deaf-mute education. Beginning with their return to the country in August, 1816, eight months were spent in a successful canvass of the leading cities of the country to interest the parents of deaf-mute children in the contemplated enterprise, and also to secure for it funds.

In May of the same year, previous to Dr. Gallaudet's return, the General Assembly had incorporated "The Connecticut Asylum for the Education and Instruction of Deaf and Dumb Persons," and later, in October, it appropriated \$5,000 for its use. The Asylum opened the following year, April 15, 1817, with seven pupils in rented rooms, upon the west side of Main street, in the City Hotel, nearly opposite to where we are now assembled. The name of Alice Cogswell stands first upon the register, which within a year contained the names of thirty-three pupils. The following year, 1818, the Connecticut members of Congress, illustrating their request by the presence at the national capitol of Mr. Clerc, obtained from the General Government the grant of a township of land. This, located and sold with Hartford thrift, furnished the means for the erection in 1821, in accordance with plans drawn by Daniel Wadsworth, of the present school building, enlarged to the west in 1844, and to the east in 1855. The unexpended balance has remained a permanent fund, the income of which, less now than formerly, applied to current expenses, has enabled the corporation to offer education to pupils at a much lower rate *per capita* than has been or is possible at institutions in other States. This national gift suggested and justified the change of name in 1819 from the "Connecticut" to the "American" Asylum, with the privilege of admission

any State of the Union. The term "Asylum" was exchanged for "School" in 1895.

Mr. Mason F. Cogswell, the prime mover in the organization of the Asylum, died in 1831. Alice Cogswell, the immediate occasion and spur of his interest and exertions, died, broken-hearted, fourteen days later. Dr. Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, from the outset the active and responsible agent of the corporation at home and abroad, retired from service in 1830, annoyed by practical difficulties of administration, and broken in health. Laurent Clerc continued to discharge his duties as instructor until 1850. The value and importance of the Asylum during eighty-three years of existence have been and are best illustrated by the lives of its pupils, 2,727, mainly self-supporting, in callings honorable and useful, and also by the long list of eminent men and devoted women, all residents of Hartford, to whom its interests have been immediately intrusted, some of whom still live, but many of whom have fallen asleep. The number of pupils present at any one time has been as high as 263, a crowded condition relieved by the opening of schools elsewhere. The building is full really with a hundred less—its present number. The corporation itself, watchful and discreet, has lived on from generation to generation, nearly a century, in undying vigor and efficiency, and is wrestling bravely with the problem of new buildings—which, I need not say, are sadly needed—as the new century opens. It has seen its experiment, undertaken with indomitable courage and, as events have proved, with far-seeing wisdom, carried out at every important point in our expanding country. At the close of the century it finds its own institution encircled by a hundred others, many of higher grade and one collegiate, all uniting to furnish education, by various methods, to a steady and uniform membership of 2,000 pupils, and all referring, with one voice, to the Hartford School as their pioneer, exemplar, and leader.

President Monroe visited the Asylum in 1817, President Jackson in 1833, and Henry Clay later in the same year. Public curiosity may have since diminished, but public confidence has never been withheld. Such has been the outward history, the earlier especially, of the American School for the Deaf, a diamond—of light weight, to be sure—but genuine and brilliant, in the diadem of Connecticut's glory. Could the State commemorate this original and extensive charity more gracefully or better than by carving upon one of the many unused medallions placed, for such use, upon the walls of its Capitol, the features of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, or of Alice Cogswell?

There remains for our consideration the permanent, the essential question, at all times of interest, What is deaf-mute education itself, divested of all historic relations?

No civilization is complete that omits the care and education of children. Illiteracy, a condition productive of pauperism, vice, and crime, is remedied by an education, gratuitous where necessary, and compulsory if declined. Colloquial speech, an admitted alleviation, is not accepted as a substitute. But the deaf, forty per cent. of them congenitally so, and sixty per cent. made so by disease, are both illiterate and speechless. They are generally the children of hearing parents, the offspring of deaf-mute marriages—a relationship but seldom occurring—inheriting the parental defect in but ten cases out of a hundred. A savagery so degraded as to have neither a literature nor a spoken language is hardly conceivable. But the congenitally deaf have neither—not a vestige. The savage receives abundant impressions of nature and life through the senses, mainly, of hearing and sight. The deaf receive theirs, less in amount, mainly from sight. Nor in the use of his single sense does the solitary deaf child have the sympathetic co-operation of natural equals. His hearing companions, with an apprehension wider and more com-

plex, do not linger to share his narrower experience and to divide his burdens. Admit him to their own they cannot with any completeness. His imagination and reason, reflecting upon eye-gathered pictures, raise questions and encounter puzzles seldom solved, and often misleading. Understanding no one, and himself misunderstood, he is wrongfully accredited with possessing a temperament passionate and violent. His advancing life tends to eccentricity and stagnation. The brand of isolation burns into his soul, deepening and indelible. Mute parentage, mute brothers and sisters, or other mute comrades, considered usually an accumulation of misfortune, afford some alleviation. Such children do have a degree of genuine—and, so, of profitable—society. But the ordinary, uneducated mute, hopeless of medical or surgical relief, confined to essential solitude, is limited to a career aborted and stunted, and marked by many painful experiences of dependence, degradation, and outrage. His beaming eyes suggest the possibilities of his nature, his shuffling feet prefigure his destiny. He will be ignored in family gatherings and in census returns. His very name will degenerate into “dummy,” a cruel, thoughtless synonym for idiocy itself. The one mute child in the circle of olive plants around the parental board presents a contrast profoundly affecting. Such a child, drifting, drifting, invites, in every Christian community, as did Alice Cogswell, the earnest efforts of benevolent people to rescue his imprisoned soul from its darkening destiny. His attentive eyes, his poised head, his alert movements, his handy ways, his eagerness to penetrate the mystery of hearing, and in some way to talk, awaken tenderest sympathy and stimulate in his behalf every relieving impulse. The educational success of Helen Keller, with neither sight nor hearing, and addressed mainly through the sense of touch, is the miracle of our times.

The fruits of a century of systematic effort now add, in our country, authority to sentiment. Deaf children, profit-

ing by the improved art of the last thirty years, especially, need remain mute no longer. Some certainly may communicate orally, and upon the faces of other men read their reply. Others, a larger number, oral arts prove too difficult, may, as before, easily and accurately communicate by writing, though at a greater expenditure of time and with less convenience. A few, finding themselves unable to acquire either speech or written language sufficient amount for easy social circulation, and so doomed to a lonely existence, below life's usual plane, are met by expert teachers, waiting and willing to render intelligible to them even, by descriptive pantomime, when other modes of communication fail, much of life's business and mystery. This lower range of thought, like air and light is universally attainable by mutes of any grade of intelligence, and is worth to any of them all its cost, attended though it is, with the danger that, in its free use, they will not realize sufficiently the importance of going beyond it. Writing and reading, with wide range, are substantially attainable by all the deaf possessing average intellect. Oral speech and lip-reading are patiently offered to all, and are satisfactorily acquired by an increasing number, smaller, as yet, than we could wish.

The obstacles, methods, standards, and results involved in the education of the hearing have been correctly defined, estimated and provided for, with endless revision and fulness. The same statements and definitions, however expanded, do not cover the case of the deaf, as working data. The essential, the fundamental difficulty in their education is metaphysical, and arises from their inner life, their distinctly mental processes, ordinarily unobserved. The branches of learning taught are substantially the same, but the avenues of approach are parallel only, very seldom identical.

The sensations, the perceptions, of the hearing and of the deaf, as gathered by eye and ear, are recorded upon

memory's plate and cylinder, more or less indelibly. The analysis of these records, and the combination of the elements obtained, in forms of judgment and imagination, leading to opinions and purpose, are thought. These perceptions in original bulk are unwieldy and well-nigh incommunicable. The mind, for celerity's sake, soon appropriates our more flexible organs as its representative servitors, and employs their activity as its circulating coin. It trains them to convey its thought to the observing sense of other minds, and also uses them as counters in its own inner storehouse. As its own conceptions enlarge, it correspondingly modifies the representing, the equivalent act. So language grows, deriving its entire life from preceding perception and impulse. Grimaces, postures, gestures, violent or gentle, and every variety of vocal tone are universally employed in life's first years, and so freely as to seem involuntary, spontaneous, God-given.

With growing intelligence the mind of the hearing child adopts the voice, mainly, as its agent, in endless permutations of articulation. It listens to its own voice in the cradle, and diligently trains it, imitating, bird-like, with all docility, the speech of others. With something to say and everything to learn, it finds in society a powerful stimulus to further development. No hearing child, possessing normal faculties and organs, fails to learn to talk. Its babble, its prattle, is attractive to its own ear, and is to others an endless tale. Soon, very soon, it becomes in the child a definite and intelligible language, a ready, habitual, spontaneous instrument of thought. The language which it has heard, probably, doubtless, is more perfect than its own imitations. But it has essentially a spoken language of its own. In its dreams and in its delirium it will not only smile and cry, it will also talk. Oral speech has become its second nature, its vernacular, long before it has reached school age, almost before it has left its mother's arms.

The struggling social instincts of a deaf child reach out along no such lines. Guided by its living, restless eye alone, it early seizes upon, employs, and develops another, the only other easily available line of expression, the activity of hand and arm. As with hearing persons the ear and the tongue unite in indissoluble alliance, so do the eye and the hand of the deaf, for evermore. Obedient to the master sense, the teaching eye, every visible bodily organ, in addition to the hand and arm, contributes something—imitatively, pictorially, and later conventionally—to the expression of the expanding, widening inner life. The enormous amount and degree of expressive power so attainable and attained, exact, rapid, certain, and vivid, contrary to the popular impression, is incredible to us who are only familiar with, and use almost solely, that natural partner of the ear, the voice. Ideas enter the mind of the deaf mainly as pictures. They are analyzed and combined into new forms mainly as pictures. They are communicated to others by the imitative outlining of the eye's trained representatives, the hand and related organs. Such language, the language of the untaught deaf-mute child, is strictly vernacular, strictly natural, strictly the outgrowth of his peculiar condition, and so strictly God-given. It is in no sense, as he uses it, a foreign crudity, forced upon him by officious instructors.

The young deaf child does not naturally originate or adopt oral speech. It is to him a facial enigma. No deaf Cadmus has as yet offered to him a finger alphabet, minutely visible and complete. He stands at the foot of the ladder of social progress, with its rounds sadly broken out. He is conscious of no vocalizing impulse, nor of any language impulse, as we understand it, struggling restlessly for expression. His vocal chords play meaningless and unnoticed, as breath sweeps by. Their master, the ear, is sleeping, is dead. Every such child, untaught, unwatched, will have, must have, as life stirs within him, a constant in-

clination, at home, upon the street, on the playground, to express himself in gestures, extempore or studied, imitative, descriptive, or conventional, but always visible. With advancing years interposing friends will teach him the significance of manual spelling in connection with language, written and printed. This language, strictly and easily visible, he will thankfully and easily adopt, practically and mentally. Expert teachers will also, with careful analysis and patient repetition, translate to his intelligence the labial picture of speech, and train his dormant vocal organs to definite muscular action, the shadowy consciousness of which, the touch of surfaces, and the vibration of air-spaces, all wholly unheard, are his only, yet real, conception of oral speech.

While conceding, as we must, the vividness, the naturalness, the possibilities, the value, the easy acquisition, of picture language, of acted speech, of object lessons, signs, by themselves, unassociated with verbal language, are not, and never will be, the current coin of communication among the adult hearing, and so of all men, the deaf included. The deaf are forced accordingly, surely and absolutely, by the mere necessity of numbers, to become, by some process of education, if they would live in human society, easy users of verbal speech, oral or written, however hard of acquisition. The form of expression which is habitual will also react upon and determine the language-form of reflection and of thought. The deaf must, artificially, and with sturdy self-denial, as far as may be, conform their forms of expression, as well as of thinking, to the practice of the hearing, with whom they must live.

It is an interesting inquiry, to what extent the deaf can think in printed or script language, with no intermediate self-spelled or self-written form. It is an equally interesting question, to what extent the hearing themselves can so think, thinking, as they ordinarily unquestionably do, in pronounced language, not as heard in others, but as

pronounced by themselves—the heroic endeavor of oral departments. We are familiar with the difficulty, the well-nigh impossibility, of remembering unpronounced words. Some claim to possess the power of calling up the picture of printed speech, page by page. Can the deaf, in whom the eye unquestionably leads, gain such strength of mental vision?

There is an apparent, a practical necessity with all persons, in the acquisition of a language, and in the use of it, for the doing of something actively and consciously. The receiving sense demands a correlated expressing organ, not merely for actual communication, but for its own efficiency. Thus the hearing pupil pronounces aloud what he is committing to memory. Checked in this he will read in whispers. Checked again, his lips will move inaudibly, while mentally the same pronouncing process is proceeding. The loud tones of primer classes and the vocal tones of earnest solitary study are illustrations of this. So, also, is the studying aloud of all Chinese schools, a practice at no time laid aside. In a parallel way the deaf pupil spells his lesson with his fingers, or pronounces it orally, perseveringly, and repeatedly, or even writes it out laboriously, until it is learned. His spelling-hand will hold in direct range of his watching eye. Checked for this display, his spelling-hand reluctantly draws away.

Spoken languages differ widely in utility. Much wider and more radical is the difference in the languages concerned in the mental operations of the deaf. Every deaf child is approached by three lines of language—his primary language, presumably the original language of the race, long superseded, in the main, but naturally revived by the deaf, and as rapid as speech; the slower, dactylic language of the teacher, including script, slower still; and oral speech. The efficiency of his mental life, the possibilities of his education are directly proportional to the availability, the quality, of this composite, threefold, inner language.

Every institution has pupils acquainted, at entrance, with colloquial speech. Used freely four or five years, before total or partial deafness intervened, it may be active, in deteriorating quality, or it may be in abeyance, to be easily revived. Deafness, with its attendant discouragement, seals lips too often unnecessarily. Trained vocal organs, though temporarily disused, and word-stored minds, already existing, render language-lessons to them a comparative pastime. Such pupils write excellent compositions and impress a wondering public, uncautioned, with exaggerated ideas of the literary and oral proficiency of the deaf as a class. The main body of the children of any institution, however, are totally deaf, one-half congenitally so, and all with no memory of words or previous vocalization. They constitute really the mass of the deaf, and, at their coming, are accurately called "deaf and dumb." Their attainments are not likely to astonish an audience or to excel those of hearing children. Their difficulties are of a very solid and serious character. To win a tolerable success they will need, through a long school term, good brain, great energy and earnestness, and in their teachers an equal degree of skill, earnestness, and patience. Such pupils will, at the outset, all of them, use gesture language externally and mentally, and no

other. Their homesick tears glisten and disappear in the joyful discovery that many others are like themselves. They are no longer alone in the world. Society, for which they have pined, has become a fact. Signs, graceful, grotesque, and various as the beasts in the sheet of Peter's vision, are let down and with one consent poured into the common stock. Without scruple, with thankfulness rather, the fittest are selected to live. It matters not that they are new or a century old, disputed or conventional. The deaf, in using them, say what they mean and mean what they say. Their range is as wide as their personal experience, the events of the day, and the topics of the time. Stimulated by their social instinct, out of school hours, unless prohibited by their teachers, they will use them, re-enforced at obscure points by finger-spelling, with an accuracy, a rapidity, an eloquence, rivalling the social life of the hearing. Whatever their attainments at school in literature or oral speech, subsequent reunions or casual meetings of school friends will ordinarily witness a joyous, a spontaneous return to the crystal waters of school-day pantomime.

But the deaf are not a race to be perpetuated, and are not educated primarily, or mainly, or indeed at all, to associate with the deaf alone, much as they must while within school walls. They may prefer—doubtless, ordinarily do prefer—deaf society, and in no clannish spirit; but the convenience and congeniality, important and essential to its happy existence, will seldom unite to provide it. Speech, though difficult and halting, and writing, though laborious and infrequent, must be their usual language with mankind. That education will fail of practical value which does not bring the pupil up to the plane of fairly intelligible speech, or, if speech proves too difficult, up to the lower and easier plane of intelligible writing. However intelligent and disciplined the mere pantomimist may be, however valuable his art may be in deaf society, his

sign education is practically useless, recite he never so glibly. His pantomime, however brilliant, is, in the society of the world at large, and in its business, a curiosity, an entertainment merely. To be of use in the world, he needs, far more, in addition to the society of the hearing, an intimate acquaintance with the current issues of the press and the literature of other times, recent and remote. Enough has been said in explanation of the peculiar avenues to be travelled in the education of the deaf, taught, as they usually are, in classes of twelve, so limited by the difficulties of intercommunication. The manual alphabet, writing, printed books, the voice itself,—all will be used in composite adjustment. Pantomime will be used for explanation or illustration or to awaken interest, precisely as pictures are used in the school-books of hearing children. The branches taught will be those usually pursued in the public schools. Correct composition will be sought, and the intelligent use of books and newspapers. To literary training instruction in several industries will also be added. All graduates should be able to communicate freely by writing and in some cases by the voice itself, with no necessity for interpreters. Poor articulation, broken speech, is better than none. The ability to utter single words, to go no farther, adds substantial value to life. A degree of proficiency in oral speech should be made, not perhaps a condition, but a recognized element of importance in full graduation in all institutions, including the college. Deaf individuals may be indifferent or hostile to its acquisition and use. But the busy world will give it full recognition and weight in its social and civil service. The existence of it, to any degree, will be an element of advantage.

Deaf-mute education includes and provides, in addition to the work of the schoolroom, the various ministry of the well-ordered home. The style of living and equipment is graduated upon no pauper basis, nor upon that

of the plainer families, but upon that of the more comfortable classes, and so is fully acceptable to them, gratefully enjoyed by those whose home life grades low and is begrudged by none. Correct personal habits and exemplary morals; social refinements and services of friendship; wholesome recreations, hospital care, and dietary regulations; a discipline elastic, as gentle as the feeble, yet sufficiently resolute to control the most sturdy; a spirit of liberty united with equitable system; an eye seeing everything and nothing; a supervising energy that will rid the administration of idleness, vice, and presumption; a harmonizing power that will cause the general current to set one way without eddies, frost, or division; a commanding superiority of character that will attract rather than enforce,—these and other desirable conditions are to be provided, if brick walls are to be quickened into a living, a real institution. The parent who has never allowed his child to sleep away from the parental roof at night intrusts to the institution the child's whole life, substantially, for ten years, and those the most plastic. How confiding the trust! How serious the responsibility!

The officers and employees of an institution are emphatically, more than books, the educating world of the pupil.



domestic characteristics, and refrain, when justice, delicacy, and charity forbid, from the public exposure or rude exhibition of its intimate events and incidents, however innocent or trivial. Such honor, scrupulous and discreet, will promote confidence and co-operation between parents and officers. Happy is the institution whose officers, of either sex, deserve and receive such trust.

But the details of philosophy, of school methods, and of administrative management, with all occurring cautions and precautions, are endless. Institutions providing for the education of the deaf, to deserve the name, must embrace and provide for the whole daily life of the pupil, from seed to fruit, in widest circle. The best elements of the home, of the school, of every department of human life, should be so gathered, combined, and administered as to promote, in the period of his youth, his highest educational and personal well-being, and so to qualify him, the companion, if not in all respects the peer, of the hearing, to discharge with pleasure and honor the full functions of an American citizen. The State, the nation, and all charitable corporations, among all their various trusts, assume no one of greater delicacy, difficulty, importance, or promise. Theirs is the privilege, receiving the full light of the past and acting up to the opportunities of the present, to lay foundations, to rear a structure, that will not crumble beneath the wiser building of the future.

Such were the foundation principles, such is the present administrative policy, of the Hartford School for the Deaf. Men and women, however noble or favored, must pass away. But the institution itself, may it endure to exercise its care, and to shed its light clearer and steadier, obedient to best reason, acknowledging no dynasties, and wedded to no traditions, as long as misfortune shall blight human hopes, or a merciful Father exist to temper the sorrow of his afflicted, speechless children.

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CHARLES WESLEY VAN TASSELL.

In the teacher's profession neither the possession of genius nor great learning is absolutely essential to gain the laurel of success. But it is a requisite that the young teacher entering the profession shall have the heart-power to attract and stimulate the minds of children, combined with the mental equipment and patience to confront the obstacles that are continually encountered. The value of his efforts will centre upon his power so to impart instruction that it shall strengthen the will and touch the heart of his pupil. This is particularly true in the first steps to awaken the faculties of deaf children.

It was the possession of such qualifications, with a tender heart, and a soul wrapped up in his work, that rendered possible the enviable attainments in teaching of the subject of this sketch during the thirty-three years of his active service in the New York Institution.

Charles Wesley Van Tassell was born in Ellenville, New York, May 12, 1843, being descended from a long line of ancestors of considerable distinction in the colonial history of New York. At the age of one he became deaf from scrofula, and received little instruction until he became a pupil at the New York Institution in 1855. At

became recognized as a teacher for whom the dullest pupil had no terror, and as an example of skill, ability, and diligence in training backward children. This was not merely the outcome of genius, unless we consider genius to imply constant effort, for no teacher was more laborious or more faithful in his class work.

In 1874, when the younger male pupils were removed to the "Mansion House," Mr. Van Tassell was selected as one of two teachers to take charge of them, and, with the exception of the few years the department was at Tarrytown, he taught at the Mansion continuously from that time. In the class-room he showed great faithfulness and conscientiousness, uniting a zeal born of knowledge and a skill originating in intelligence and perfected by experience. His labors were rewarded by the success which such a combination of qualities could not fail to secure.

As has been said, he was regularly assigned the duty of taking classes through their first three years, and so perfect was the foundation he laid in language, in exactness of comprehension, and in manners and morals that his pupils, upon promotion to the main school, generally outstripped those who had not received the benefit of his training. He possessed that special power by means of which he was able to stimulate the minds of pupils whose faculties had not reached the condition of general awakening, and to interest them in subjects having a direct tendency to increase their intelligence. So that, without any pretensions to deep learning, he understood the philosophy of the deaf child's mind, and in his instruction accomplished results that would scarcely have been excelled, if equalled, by the most accomplished scholar. His patient, painstaking instruction opened the minds of his charges, while his fatherly interest in their progress won their love and obedience.

In 1870 he married Miss Clotilde Lyon, a graduate of

the New York Institution High Class of the same year as himself, who died two months after her husband. The union was blessed by three children—two sons, William H. and Charles W., Jr., who hold responsible positions in the Institution, and a daughter, Clotilde. In appearance Mr. Van Tassell was tall and strongly built, and while not very advanced in years, yet his white beard and high forehead gave him a patriarchal look, which was enhanced by his courteous smile and gentle manners to all with whom he came in contact.

As a teacher, he was a worker rather than a talker. He was unwilling to say anything, till he could say the right thing. His mind was clear. His thoughts were well defined and lucid. He never attempted to express an idea until it was fully in possession of his own mind. He knew clearly what he knew; and also knew what he did not know. That is, he saw distinctly what his mind, was known, and what was unknown, and, between, what was certain and what was doubtful. These clearly defined limits he scrupulously regarded in his teaching. He had strongly developed the faculty of order. Everything he attempted he did systematically. He had a place for everything, and everything in its place, not only in his class-room, but in his mind and in all his mental developments. Possessing these intellectual qualities, and having, until recently, uniformly good health, he became an accomplished teacher in his particular line.

on July 19, 1899, in his fifty-seventh year, and the thirty-third of his connection with the New York Institution as a teacher.

Possessing the brain to think and study, a big, warm heart, and love for his work in that heart, he accomplished results which leave behind him a reputation as a teacher that will endure.

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THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES. REPORT OF A VISIT, AND A FURTHER CONTRIBUTION TO THE QUESTION OF METHODS.*—III.

C. Speech, the Sign-Language, Writing, and the Manual Alphabet in their Mutual Relation and their Relation to the Deaf.—Continued.

4. The *manual alphabet* or *finger-language* (dactylology) was invented neither for nor by the deaf, but reaches back to a time when deaf-mute instruction was not thought of. It was known even to the old Greeks and Romans, and in the Middle Ages it was used by the members of religious orders who had vowed silence but were not able to dispense with all conversation and every means of communication.

The manual alphabet consists of figures of the hand, particular positions of the fingers, which in part resemble the capital letters of Latin print, and which are the same in number as the sounds and letters of the different languages. The American or English manual alphabet, for

* Translated from the German by GEORGE W. VEDITZ, M. A., Instructor in the Colorado School, Colorado, Springs, Colo. Continued from the September number of the *Annals*, page 358.

instance, consists of twenty-six manual symbols and a separate sign for the conjunction *and*.

During my experience of almost twenty-four years as a teacher of the deaf, I have failed to find a single article on the manual alphabet in German professional literature, and if reference was occasionally made to this means of communication it was in a casual and contemptuous manner. It was stigmatized as an "artificial and harmful sign-language," the only use of which was to help out writing in the French method.*

Now, shall we count the manual alphabet in the same class with the sign-language, or with verbal language? And if we class it with the latter, to which category of language symbols does it belong—letters or articulate sounds?

According to present definitions, verbal language is an abstract term and includes speech and written language. In its nature it is the means of expression of skilfully formed thoughts which are associated with connected sounds (in speech) or with the corresponding sound-symbols (in writing). In this sense verbal language stands in opposition to the sign-language, which expresses less skilfully formed thoughts by means of integral symbols which are incapable of division. Regarded from this point of view, finger-spelling, which coincides in the combination of its elements with spoken and written language, should be classed with verbal language. It may be characterized as a third and special form of verbal language. But should we contrast finger-spelling with spoken language and analyze each exclusively according

* This seems to have been Mr. Heidsiek's own opinion before his visit to America. See his communication to the Volta Bureau, written four years ago (*Annals*, xli, 35), in which he says: "I consider the methodical acquisition and use of the artificial manual alphabet a waste of time, an unnecessary aggravation of difficulties, and a prolongation of the period of culture."—E. A. F.

to the difference of their elements, and say speech is an audible language, but finger-spelling a visible language, then finger-spelling must be classed as a form of the sign-language.

Like the first, the second question also admits of different interpretations. If we regard speech as a direct, but writing as an indirect, means of communication, the symbols of the manual alphabet, being a direct means of communication, stand in the class with articulate sounds. But if we regard writing not as an object but as an action, especially when we write in the air, then it would appear that the manual symbols might more accurately be classed with the written letters. But in this case we should obscure the conception of writing, whose function consists less in the action than in the service it renders of preserving, for future interpretation and without human interposition, thoughts which otherwise could be transmitted only by tradition.

All these considerations are permissible and indicate how wide a field of speculation is here offered. It is also apparent at the first glance that it would be more correct to ask what the finger-language *might be*, than what it is once for all, for only the position which this unique means of communication assumes in different cases in the process of thought can be conclusive. In the intercourse of the brethren of the mediæval religious orders, for instance, the finger-language had to perform other functions than with the little deaf-mute possessing no other means of communication.

As a medium of language the manual alphabet assumes a unique position, somewhat like the Braille alphabet for the blind, which consists of raised points. And if the education of the blind, as contrasted with that of the deaf, is being developed so quietly and steadily, this is to be ascribed, in my opinion, in a large measure to the adoption of this alphabet.

In schools for the blind two alphabet systems are in use, viz., the Hebold alphabet, designed for communication with the seeing, and the Braille alphabet, used for educational purposes. The introduction of the latter was not accomplished without opposition; efforts were made to exclude it on the ground that it could not be read by the seeing, and was therefore of no practical value. This objection was met with the simple answer that this alphabet, so suitable to the sense of touch of the blind, was not intended for seeing persons, but for the blind, the unfortunates whose education was the object sought. This settled the matter. To-day there is hardly a school for the blind anywhere, where this alphabet, "which separates the blind from the seeing world," is not employed.*

Though the Braille point system has not the slightest similarity to ordinary writing, no initiated person will doubt that when used as writing it may represent as perfect a form of our verbal language as the ordinary alphabet. We find that the manual alphabet, as used in finger-spelling, presents a very similar aspect.

Dactylology is nothing more than a mode of spelling—a visible or, to be more accurate, inaudible speaking with the hand. As ordinary speech consists of a succession of *audible* sounds, so dactylology consists of *visible* signs, which, however, in number and combinations coincide exactly with the former. And if it be objected that it is just this difference between audible and visible which distinguishes the character of speech and signs, I beg that it be remembered that the teacher of the deaf has to deal with persons who cannot hear, not with auditors but with spectators. If finger-spelling is a sign-language, speech is likewise a sign-language to the deaf. For when I speak to the deaf, whether with the hand or the mouth, I always address the eye of my pupils, and the medium of communication is always a visible form.

* In the large school for the blind in New York, I found a system of writing based upon the same principle.

For the deaf, oral language consists only of visible movements, and if all indirect visible movements of expression are characterized as signs, then speech can be no more to the deaf than a sign-language, which differs from finger-spelling and all other gestures only in the circumstance that its symbols or elements are extremely indistinct and confused, thus causing inexpressible difficulties in its acquisition. For it goes without saying that the sharply defined figures of finger-spelling are better adapted to the eye, and therefore grasped much more rapidly, accurately, and easily, than the obscure movements of the lips, and that the supple hand has greater skill in the formation of characteristic language symbols than the mouth. It is in consideration of all these circumstances that Mr. Westervelt says: "It is the principle of our method of instruction that the deaf-mute has a right to receive instruction through that form of our language which he can understand most readily, with the least strain of attention, and the least diversion from the thought to the organ of its expression."

Though dactylology was not specially invented for the deaf, it would still be difficult to find a more appropriate and serviceable form of language for them. The most reliable evidence of its appropriateness is the ease and freedom with which they learn and use it. The average deaf child of from six to eight years, under systematic instruction, acquires its twenty-six symbols within a few weeks, so that he can apply them in designating things and persons of his environment. In fact he even learns this language unconsciously and without special instruction, just as he learns signs, or as a hearing child learns its mother tongue—by means of mere intercourse with persons who use this medium of thought for the deaf.*

* In the large school for the deaf in New York there are at present three blind deaf-mutes with whom the finger-language has led to results such as we very seldom find in dull pupils in German schools for the deaf.

If, therefore, we wish to grade the indirect forms of language here discussed with due consideration of the individuality of the deaf-mute, and according to the "principle of natural fitness," and to ask in what order they should stand regarded as organs of thought for the deaf, then—

the language of signs would come first,
finger-spelling second, and
the lip or oral language third.

It is beyond all doubt that the deaf-mute can think in all three forms of language. It is also a fact that the three do not serve with equal convenience and ease as his organ of thought. The degree of utility of different forms of language as the organ of thought depends, essentially, upon the clearness of the conceptions which the pupil can form from their respective language symbols. In this connection the order given above is correct. The deaf-mute obtains the clearest conceptions (we will not further discuss the everlasting *why*?) from the sign-language. Then follow the figures of the finger-language, and last, utterly last, the, to the deaf, indistinct and confused lip or oral language.

It is therefore erroneous to say that it is wholly immaterial with which symbols the deaf-mute connects his thoughts. The different language symbols of the deaf are not of equal value as the organ of thought. Practice and habit can certainly accomplish a great deal, and experiments through many years in the field of deaf-mute education have demonstrated that, when we consider the forms of language employed, we may even speak of a natural or artificial process of thought. But, on the other hand, the failures of the Pure Oral method only demonstrate anew that human skill when fighting against nature is generally forced to beat an inglorious retreat.

If, since the times of Samuel Heinicke, it has been promised and demanded that the deaf-mute should think

in speech, then such a demand has value theoretically only. Practically it is valueless. The main point is and must remain that in general the deaf-mute should be educated into a reasoning being, and that he should be able to communicate with the hearing world orally and in writing. The teacher is not only justified in employing all the means which lead most surely, quickly, and easily to this goal, but he is in duty bound to employ them. And among these means we must count in the very first rank, as I became convinced in the American schools for the deaf, the manual alphabet.

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. The finger-language | } are forms or species of verbal |
| 2. Speech | |
| 3. Written language | |

language and lead to the same end, viz., that the deaf-mute should think in the forms of verbal language and learn to use and understand it. We must never lose sight of this end if we desire to give the deaf-mute the only efficient means for further education, and to lift him to the same plane of civilization as the rest of his race. If speech, finger-spelling, and writing are employed simultaneously and in juxtaposition, then, according to the elementary laws of association, endless repetition will produce a connection between these signs and the object designated, so that they will mutually reproduce one another. If in unrestricted intercourse the deaf-mute has to choose between speech and finger-spelling, he will always give the preference to the latter, because its symbols are more sharply defined and are therefore more easily recognized by the eye. If, now, the deaf-mute really thinks in the finger-language, this language as a matter of fact renders service to verbal language, for, with methodical training, he will think in the forms of the latter, and by its use the evil influence of the sign-language will be neutralized.

In the fifty-six public schools (not including day schools) for the deaf in the United States, finger-spelling is used

by over 8,000 pupils, and the surprising results in language must chiefly be ascribed to this simple but ingenious medium of communication. The advantage of the finger-language consists principally in these facts:

- a. It is easily learned.
- b. It renders the sign-language unnecessary to the deaf.
- c. It renders possible, throughout the whole course of instruction, a process of developing both mind and language which is suited to the individuality of the deaf.

D. *Summary of Conclusions Regarding Methods or Systems.*

If by *method* we understand a process based on certain principles, but by *system* an integral, harmonious whole composed of a variety of parts combined according to uniform rule, then in our case we have more properly to deal with a question of systems than with a conflict of methods.

As may have been seen from the preceding discussion, the differences in the domain of deaf-mute education are principally differences of opinion as to the educational value of the different forms of language, and the combination in which they afford a system that will be most practicable for the education of the deaf. Opinions concerning different systems will vary according to the importance attached to formal or material results. Not only do opinions differ in this connection, but an agreement is rendered further difficult by reason of the diverse conceptions that prevail in professional circles regarding the complex character of language in general. An instance will serve to explain my meaning.

Mr. Vatter, of Frankfort-on-the-Main, a prominent representative of the Pure Oral method, has published a

work, consisting of two parts, under the title "The Education of the Deaf in Speech." The first part treats of "Technical (Mechanical) Articulation," the second of "The Education of the Perceptive Faculty."

The first part of this work may perhaps be entitled correctly ("The Education of the Deaf in Articulation" would have been more accurate), but the title of the whole does not fit the second part. So far as I understand Mr. Vatter's process, he gives his pupils not only speech but also written language, and the two together constitute verbal language. Speech and writing have the same contents, convey the same conception. There is not one conception for speech and another for written language, and therefore the title of the whole work should have been "The Education of the Deaf in Verbal Language."

But, further, Mr. Vatter says in the second part of his work, "The fact that the deaf may acquire speech needs no further demonstration when we remember the large number of them who use verbal language and, in fact, produce great agitation in and by means of it."

Judging from Mr. Vatter's statements, it might seem that the deaf were actually becoming popular orators and were putting the acquired art of speech to questionable uses. But in which form of language do the deaf "produce great agitation"—in speech or writing? I have not yet heard of deaf-mute stump speakers, but, in view of Mr. Vatter's statement, I feel tempted to give here letters from some of these "agitators," and beg the reader kindly to tell me how accomplished these deaf persons are in speech, or how they speak. The letter to President McKinley in the second section of this treatise was written by a pupil who as a matter of fact was unable to speak. The French and American manual methods offer evidence that the deaf may acquire verbal language in its written form (based on finger spelling) without having learned the art of speech. Just as a person may breathe with one lung,

so a person may move with one of the wings of language, viz., with written language. A letter from any deaf-mute will show how far he commands verbal language, but even the most finished newspaper article will fail to show how the deaf-mute in question speaks.

There are deaf-mutes who read books and papers intelligently (in Germany, however, they are very few), and even write instructive articles in professional and industrial periodicals for the benefit of their hearing brethren. It is not infrequent that these deaf-mutes speak but poorly and unintelligibly; but, notwithstanding all these defects, they speak, just as they write, good German. Of these deaf-mutes I may assert that they have a command of verbal language, for they think in the forms of our verbal language, and make themselves clearly understood in business and in social life.

Contrasted with these deaf-mutes, who need not necessarily be engaged in literary pursuits, we find others who speak quite intelligibly, but that which they speak and write is a horrible jargon. These deaf-mutes can speak, but they have no language. They cannot write a postal card unaided, or understand the simplest items in the daily papers. They are, and will always remain, minors; for, lacking language, they lack the sole means of farther education.

Which of these deaf-mutes, I would now ask, are really restored to humanity? Mr. Vatter has frequently asserted that he would chiefly judge the efficiency of a school for the deaf according to the speech of the pupils. Many of his adherents have the same opinion. Not many weeks ago a colleague was so independent as to express himself as follows in an article in a professional publication: "The importance, value, or failure of deaf-mute instruction depends solely upon the *articulation* of the pupils. This is the only side on which we can compel in everybody not only interest in our cause, but even respect. For the testimony of the ear is beyond question."

This view may have something in its favor, but I cannot accept it, and I cannot make my judgment expressed below regarding the various methods adapt itself to the opinion and statement quoted above. I shall not examine and estimate the methods according to how they are likely to “compel in everybody respect,” but according to how adequately they consider the necessities and individuality of the deaf. But in order first to explain the confusion of ideas in the instance given from Mr. Vatter, which is due to the arbitrary misuse of our technical terminology, I will, in recapitulating, show how our conception of speech must be analyzed in accordance with the preceding considerations, and what forms of language are compatible and what are incompatible with one another.

Language.

VERBAL LANGUAGE.			SIGN-LANGUAGE.	
Speech.	Dactylology.	Written language.	Pantomime or natural signs.	Conventional signs.
Sounds.	Hand symbols.	Letters.		

Language is a form ; it is that organ, peculiar to the human mind, used to marshal its conceptions and thoughts and to utter them in definite forms. The more perfect instrument of this kind is verbal language ; the less perfect is the sign-language. Thinking in verbal language is a method of thinking that differs essentially from the process of thinking in signs. Thinking in verbal language is of a higher nature (conceptive) ; that in signs is lower, a process of thinking in concrete perceptions, a thinking in pictures.

Verbal language is divided into speech and written lan-

guage. Speech is the primary form of verbal language in which we think. Written language, however, is the secondary form, and is not adapted to serve as the organ of thought. Writing is an artificial medium of language; it is, as it were, speech set in notes, and as such adapted and intended to preserve human thought.

The less perfect language of signs has, so far, developed no written form.

Speech consists of audible tones and noises which we distinguish, according to a more or less arbitrary classification, as sounds or elements of speech.

Finger-language and writing are imitations or symbols of speech, whose elements are the same in number, though not in quality, as the elements of speech. Speech consists of audible elements; finger-language and writing consist of visible elements.

The elements of speech are the proper carriers of our thoughts. Hearing man thinks in audible sounds. But how does the deaf-mute think?

The deaf-mute who has learned to speak artificially can under no circumstances think in audible sounds; but, as he neither sees nor hears his own speech, only the motions of the organs perceptible to the touch remain, in which he must think. It requires no genius to perceive that this artificial language of the deaf, based upon touch, cannot be the same, cannot render him the same service in his thought processes, that speech does for the hearing person.

It is not mental inactivity or stupidity that causes the congenital deaf-mute to remain dumb, nor is it maliciousness or a mere crotchet when, in spite of all warning and kindly admonition, he again and again resorts to the sign-language, an instrument which he finds much nearer and more convenient as an organ of thought than the indistinct and uncertain oral language. The sense of sight is far above the sense of touch, and the conceptions the

latter gives us of the movements of our speech organs are so inferior that they are incapable of comparison with our sight conceptions.

Nature offers the deaf-mute equipped with a normal eye a visible language, and when human indiscretion attempts to improve upon nature, puts the eye of the deaf-mute out of its activity, and offers as something better what is of less value, it is a transaction in which the deaf-mute refuses to concur. As an intelligent being, he wishes in the act of thought-conception to satisfy himself, by means of the eye, of the incarnation of this new portion of his being, and therefore his individuality demands a visible form of language.

We are justified and approved by practical considerations in teaching the deaf-mute the art of speech, but it is stupidity to demand that he should make this dull instrument the organ of his thought, and that he should be educated exclusively with the aid of this artificial language. Speech is sufficient for the education of the hearing, but insufficient for the deaf, unless our schools desire to become more and more a caricature of the public schools. And if these theoretic considerations still fail to convince, I throw into the scale of proof all the deaf-mutes in the world who have been or are being instructed according to the Pure Oral method, but who, as any one not stricken with absolute blindness, can see, think in signs and use them almost exclusively in their intercourse among themselves.

The experience of many years has shown that the Pure Oral method is incapable of satisfying the language conditions of the deaf, while with the congenitally deaf it leads to the conventional sign-language in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred. Now, in order to remove the injurious influence which this language exercises upon the acquisition of verbal language, wisdom demands that we search for a form of communication which will render the

sign-language unnecessary, and comply with the conditions embodied in the following principles :

First principle. The deaf-mute must learn verbal language and must be rendered capable of thinking in the forms of this language, and of making himself understood orally and in writing.

Second principle. The instruction given in schools for the deaf must from the beginning and through the whole course develop both mind and language, and conform to the individuality of the deaf.

We can now render a verdict on the various methods in accordance with these principles :

- | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|
| 1. The Manual method | { | Finger-language.
Sign-language.
Written language. |
|----------------------|---|---|

The advantages of this method are—

- a.* That it gives the deaf written language.
- b.* That it answers the conditions of the second principle.

The objections to the method are—

- a.* That it leaves the deaf without speech.
- b.* That the adoption of the sign-language renders the mastery of verbal language doubtful.

Whence we conclude that the Manual method is unable to fill the conditions of the first principle, and should therefore be rejected as unsuitable.

We may make this limited concession : With dull pupils, to whom articulation offers insurmountable obstacles, this method may produce satisfactory results, especially if, as is the case in the Manual Department of the Pennsylvania Institution, we succeed in so far limiting the use of gestures that the pupil does not think in signs but in finger-spelling, and thus in a form of verbal language.

- | | | |
|-------------------------|---|------------------------------|
| 2. The Pure Oral method | { | Speech.
Written language. |
|-------------------------|---|------------------------------|

The advantages of this method are that it teaches speech

and written language, and therefore apparently answers the conditions of the first principle.

We must admit the following objections to this method :

a. It over-estimates the educational value (to the deaf) of speech, and, as its name (Pure Oral method) implies, its purposes and aims are extremely one-sided, and from the first are not directed toward the acquisition of verbal language in both forms.

b. It does not proceed from what is near and easy, but bases the entire instruction upon an art which the deaf-mute can acquire but incompletely even under the most favorable conditions, and therefore it disregards the cardinal principles of pedagogy.

c. It consists principally of drill in articulation and lip-reading, places more importance upon the dress than the meaning of speech, is occupied more with the form than the matter, and therefore leaves the deaf in a barren pasturage.

d. It is unable to satisfy the language craving of the deaf, and therefore impels them toward the sign-language, which, as soon as the pupil becomes accustomed to think in it, renders the mastery of verbal language doubtful.

e. It therefore leads to an unhappy dualism in the intellectual life of the school and the pupil,* which is detrimental to the whole work of instruction and education.

f. It is more akin to mere drill and training, especially in the lower classes, than to instruction and education ; it not only neglects mental development, but also carries in many cases, and in a high degree, the danger of retrogression for the pupil.

For these and many other reasons, we conclude that the Pure Oral method, which is unable to answer the conditions of either the first or the second principle, must be

* The power of habit is so great that this dualism is in certain places altogether unnoticed. Again, many try to deceive themselves and shut their eyes to this inconsistency, because nowadays it seems wise and even necessary (it is superfluous here to explain for what reasons) to announce allegiance to the Pure Oral method.

stigmatized as a pedagogical aberration that will ever be a discredit to the nineteenth century.

3. The Combined System {
 Finger-language.
 Sign-language.
 Speech.
 Written language.

For this system we must acknowledge—

a. That in addition to speech it gives proper consideration to written language, so important to the deaf.

b. That from the very start it renders possible a systematic instruction in language, together with articulation, so that the school work from the beginning and through the entire course is—

1. Varied and interesting ;
2. Fitted to develop both mind and language, and
3. On the whole, adapted to the individuality of the deaf, and, at the same time, of a most practical character.

Though this system fully comes up to the requirements of the second principle, there are serious objections to be raised against its official permission of the unrestricted use of signs, which jeopardizes the acquisition of verbal language, and thus the conditions of the first principle. As a matter of fact, I had to observe in various schools using this system that the upper classes did not realize the expectations justified by the younger ones, and that verbal language was retarded in the same measure as the conventional sign-language pushed itself forward and became the mode of thought of the pupils. Therefore, though the Combined System possesses marked advantages over the Pure Oral method, and though it prevails in the United States, still it cannot be regarded as the ideal method, and is, therefore, probably doomed to extinction.

4. The Manual Alphabet method {
 Finger-language.
 Speech.
 Written language.

This method includes all the advantages and good points

of the preceding system. The objections, however, that had to be raised against the Combined System do not hold here, as the sign-language is rigorously excluded both as means of instruction and communication. The Manual Alphabet method is the happiest form of the Combined System, for it embodies those features of the German and French methods which, mutually assisting each other, follow the same purpose of bringing the deaf to a mastery of verbal language. In this, finger-spelling only serves as a means to the end. The employment of this medium affords the following advantages over the Pure Oral method:

- a.* It gives the system a broader and stronger foundation.
- b.* It renders possible a process of instruction that can be applied with deaf-mutes of all degrees of capacity.
- c.* It renders possible a separate course in speech and language, and thus, from the first, a rational course of instruction.
- d.* It gives the mechanical instruction in articulation the necessary time for development, and, therefore, ensures success in speech.
- e.* It places the teacher in a position to proceed from what is easy to what is difficult, and thus increases the educational value of the instruction.
- f.* In general it makes allowance for the individuality of the deaf, and makes the method natural and humane.

No other method is capable of a theoretical justification like the above, nor can produce equal results. I therefore regard the Manual Alphabet or Rochester method as the most perfect method of the present and the method of the future.

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Breslau, Silesia, Prussia.

[TO BE CONCLUDED.]

NOTICES OF PUBLICATIONS.

BACHEBERLE, LOUIS J. Directory of the Deaf, embracing names of deaf-mutes of Cincinnati and Hamilton county; Cleveland and Cuyahoga county; Columbus and Franklin county; Dayton, Toledo, Springfield; Canton and Stark county; Akron, Ohio, and Campbell and Kenton counties, Kentucky. Cincinnati: 1899. 24mo, pp. 48.

In addition to the directory of the deaf residing in the places named in the title, this little book contains lists of schools, societies, missions, etc., and other miscellaneous information. It is illustrated by pictures of the Ohio Institution, the Ohio Home for the Aged and Infirm, and the Cleveland School.

FORCHHAMMER, G. Der Imitative Sprachunterricht in der Taubstummenschule auf der Basis der Schrift (Lautschrift, Lautrecht-schreibung), gestützt auf Erfahrungen in der Kgl. Taubstummen-schule zu Nyborg. Aus dem Dänischen übersetzt von E. GOEPFERT. [Imitative Language Instruction in Schools for the Deaf on the Basis of Writing (Phonetic Writing), based upon practical experience in the Royal School for the Deaf at Nyborg. Translated from the Danish by E. GOEPFERT]. Leipzig: 1899. 8vo, pp. 151.

Dissatisfied with the Oral method of instructing the deaf as generally practised in Europe, two thoughtful teachers, Mr. Göpfert, of Leipsic, Germany, and Mr. Forchhammer, of Nyborg, Denmark, working independently of each other, each in his own country, have recently proposed that writing, instead of speech and speech-reading, should be made the basis of instruction. A translation of Mr. Göpfert's treatise was published in the *Annals* for February of this year;* a translation has also appeared in the Italian periodical *L'Educazione dei Sordomuti*, and one is announced in the French *Revue Pédagogique*; it has aroused much attention and discussion in all the countries of Europe.

Mr. Forchhammer's work is more elaborate than Mr. Göp-

* "The Place of Writing in the Language Instruction of True Deaf-Mutes, Especially the Less Intelligent," *Annals*, xliv, 92-110.

fert's, and he goes further in his advocacy of the Writing method, regarding it as the best, not only for "true deaf-mutes, especially the less intelligent," but for all the deaf, including the semi-mute and semi-deaf; and not only for their elementary instruction, but for their whole course; though he would add the teaching of speech and speech-reading, and would use these as a means of instruction as the pupils acquire proficiency in language. He also differs from Mr. Göpfert in laying stress upon the value of *phonetic* writing in the instruction of the deaf, a matter which is of more importance in Denmark (as in English-speaking countries) than in Germany, because the orthography of Danish (as of English) words corresponds much less closely with their pronunciation. For the Danish language, however, he finds it possible to use a phonetic form of script which differs so little from the form generally employed that it can be easily read by any one familiar with the common script.

Mr. Forchhammer's principal arguments, like Mr. Göpfert's, are (1) that writing, being more easily learned and more readily and clearly understood than speech, is better adapted for imparting instruction; and (2) that it enables the teacher to dispense with the sign-language as a means of communication, while speech does not. He claims that the final results in speech and speech-reading, as well as in language and general information, are more satisfactory than from the Oral method.

Mr. Forchhammer's views are based not only upon theory but upon practice. The Writing method of teaching language was substituted for the Oral method with the younger pupils in the Royal School at Nyborg (of which he is the head) in 1895, and has been continued since that time with the entering class of each year.

Although this school consists entirely of semi-mute and semi-deaf pupils,* the class of the deaf for whom it is generally admitted that the Oral method is better adapted than for any

* In Denmark education is compulsory for all the deaf, and there are three public schools for their benefit. At the age of eight years every deaf child in the kingdom not receiving private instruction is sent to the Oral School at Fredericia, where he remains for one year on probation. At the end of the year a division of the pupils is made. The semi-mute

other class, Mr. Forchhammer says that the Writing method has proved far more satisfactory than the former Oral method; and he claims, of course, that the arguments in its favor apply still more forcibly in the case of "true" deaf-mutes, and most forcibly of all in the case of the less intelligent.

Mr. Forchhammer not only argues in favor of writing instead of speech as the basis of language teaching, but he advocates strongly the "imitative" method of teaching language, of which Dr. Bell's article "Upon a Method of Teaching Language to a Very Young Congenitally Deaf Child," published in the *Annals* some years ago (vol. xxviii, pp. 124-139), gives an excellent exposition. In support of his views Mr. Forchhammer translates this article in full, and quotes at some length from Miss Sullivan's account of "How Helen Keller Acquired Language" (*Annals*, xxxvii, 127-154). He also translates Mr. Göpfert's treatise above mentioned, and Mr. Göpfert, in an excellent German translation which has had the benefit of Mr. Forchhammer's revision, brings the whole work before a much larger number of readers than it could possibly have reached in the Danish original.

GAILLARD, HENRI. *Le Jugement du Silence* (Histoire de l'heure présente) [The Judgment of Silence (History of the present hour)]. Paris: 1899. 12mo, pp. 218.

— *Le Secret d'une Élection* (Scènes de la vie de Province) [The Secret of an Election (Scenes of Provincial Life)]. Paris: Librairie Silencieuse. 1898. 12mo, pp. 63.

— *Le Siège de Columbine, Pantomime-Bouffe en deux actes* [The Courtship of Columbine, a Comic Pantomime in two acts]. Paris: 1899. 4to, pp. 6.

— *Le Congrès des Sourds-Muets Allemands à Stuttgart, mai, 1899* [The Congress of German Deaf-Mutes at Stuttgart, May, 1899]. Paris: Librairie Silencieuse. 1899. 8vo, pp. 16.

— *Allocution Mimée au Banquet de l'Alliance Silencieuse, Le Dimanche 20 Novembre, 1898* [Address Delivered in the Sign-Language at the Banquet of the Silent Alliance, Sunday, November 20, 1898]. 8vo, pp. 4.

and semi-deaf are removed to the Nyborg School. The "true" deaf-mutes are divided into three classes, known as A, B, and C. The A and B classes remain at Fredericia under oral instruction, while the C class, consisting of the less intelligent, are removed to the school at Copenhagen, where they are taught by the Manual Alphabet method.

The five publications named above are from the pen of a deaf man, the editor of the *Journal des Sourds-Muets* and the *Revue Pédagogique de l'Enseignement des Sourds-Muets*. Their subjects indicate the versatility of his talents, the first being a collection of short essays chiefly on political and literary topics; the second, a novel, of which the hero is a deaf-mute; the third, a pantomime; the fourth, a report; and the fifth, an address. They are all bright and interesting and show literary ability.

LIOT, AUGUSTE. Cours Élémentaire de Grammaire à l'Usage des Sourds-Muets [Elementary Course in Grammar for the use of Deaf-Mutes]. Paris: Librairie Silencieuse. 1899. 12mo, pp. 155.

Mr. Liot, an instructor in the National Institution at Paris, agrees with most teachers that language should be taught by practice and not by grammar, but he recognizes the value of grammatical instruction during the latter part of the course of instruction, and in this book endeavors to present the principles of grammar in simpler and easier form than is usual in text-books prepared for hearing children. His numerous illustrative examples of grammatical rules and definitions are given in language especially adapted to the comprehension of deaf-mutes.

LYON, Mr. and Mrs. EDMUND. State Board of Charities (New York). Report on the Deaf for 1898. 8vo, pp. 103.

Mr. and Mrs. Lyon are inspectors appointed by the State Board of Charities of New York. Every year they conduct an examination of all the schools for the deaf in the State, and report in detail on the results. This enables the several schools to compare their relative standing in certain respects and their progress from year to year. As the schools are designated by letters and the pupils by numbers, their identity can only be guessed at by the outside public. One school has stood at the head of the list for three years, and four others "seem to be more or less rapidly closing the gap which separates them from the leader." The disparity between the standings of the schools at the head and the foot of the list is very great, and suggests the question whether the marks show the actual relative

worth of the schools. Is one school really so far superior to the others in all respects, or is it merely better prepared along the special lines that the examination follows? Are the schools that are approaching the standard of the leader really progressing so much more than the others, or are they "catching up" merely because they are "catching on" to the form the examination is likely to take? It is probably impossible to devise any means of comparing schools with absolute justice in a brief examination, but the tests employed by the inspectors—some easy questions of a general nature, a story to be read within a specified time and reproduced in the pupil's own words, and some questions on the story—are excellent, so far as they go, and seem to be applied with perfect fairness.

The inspectors urge the importance of greater uniformity in the courses of study, and the more general use of standard library books to cultivate the reading habit in the pupils.

The tables showing "modes of intercommunication employed by pupils" are the least trustworthy part of the report. As Mr. Currier, Principal of the New York Institution, says: "There are so many things to be taken into consideration. The condition of the one speaking; the condition of the one spoken to; the place where such communication is made, all have a bearing upon the points mentioned, and cannot be answered by any figures that I know of."

MANGIONI, F. *L'Evoluzione Storica della Pedagogia Emendatrice Italiana. Studio critico* [The Historical Development of Amendatory Pedagogy in Italy. A critical study]. Firenze: 1899. 8vo, pp. 71.

The scope of this work is not as broad as the title indicates: it is limited to the education of the deaf. The author, who is the director of the National Institution at Florence, takes leading Italian teachers of the past and present as representatives of the various phases through which the instruction of the deaf in Italy has reached its present development. He describes and characterizes the labors of Silvestri, Bagutti, Borsari, Fabriani, Assarotti, and Provolo as pioneers in the work: Ghislandi, Nicolussi, Marchiò, Tarra, and Pendola as reformers of the method of instruction: and Fornari, Ferreri,

and Scuri as leaders of the present day, who have greatly improved upon the work of their predecessors.

MCERDER, J. *Les Sourds - Muets en Russie* [The Deaf in Russia]. St. Petersburg: 1899. 4to, pp. 28.

An interesting sketch, with statistics incomplete, but fuller than any previously published, of the twenty-seven schools for the deaf in the Russian Empire, including those of Finland. The eight schools of Finland contain 665 of the total 1,735 pupils in Russian schools. Some of the schools follow the Manual method, some the Oral, some the Manual Alphabet, and some the Combined System. The schools at St. Petersburg and Warsaw and those of Finland are supported by the State; a few are maintained by towns; but the majority are chiefly dependent upon benevolent societies or individuals. A society organized in 1898 and named in honor of the Empress Maria Féodorovna is doing much to promote the establishment of new schools and to increase the efficiency of those already existing.

In speaking of the progress of the education of the deaf in America the author gives us too much credit, saying that there were thirty-three schools in this country the year after the first school was established at Hartford in 1817, and that there are now 425! In fact, it was more than half a century after the Hartford School was established that the number of schools in the country rose to thirty-three, and the present number is not much over a hundred.

MONACI, Dr. D. SILVIO. *Genova e i Genovesi nella Istruzione dei Sordomuti* [Genoa and the Genoese in the Instruction of the Deaf]. Genoa: 1899. 8vo, pp. 26.

An historical address by the Director of the Royal National Institution for the Deaf at Genoa, delivered in the hall of the Society of Letters and Scientific Discussions, Genoa, April 10, 1899. The publication is illustrated with portraits of Padre Assarotti, the founder and long the director of the Genoa Institution, Abbé Boselli, his successor, and Padre Tommaso Pendola, the founder of the Siena Institution, who was a native of Genoa.

RANCUREL, G. *Essai d'Enseignement Synthétique des Premiers Éléments du Langage Usuel, Précédé d'un Vocabulaire et suivi de Récits Amusants* [Manual for the Synthetic Teaching of the First Elements of Common Language, preceded by a Vocabulary and followed by Entertaining Stories]. Paris: Librairie Silencieuse. 1900. 12mo, pp. 245.

Mr. Rancurel is an instructor in the National Institution at Paris. This book, which is one of a proposed series intended to cover the whole course of instruction, is designed for the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth years. It includes a classified vocabulary of common words, lessons on nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc., dialogues, stories with and without questions, fables, model letters, and proverbs. Its aim is to teach language by the intuitive method and orally, but the "incontestible value" of signs as well as writing is fully recognized, and the author does not fear any danger from either in the hands of a teacher who never allows himself to forget that his pupil must be transformed into a hearing and speaking person—one who, as De l'Épée said, "hears with the eyes and speaks with the mouth."

ROE, LYDIA. *The Teaching of Language during the Early Period of a Deaf Child's School Life.* Derby, England: 1899. 8vo, pp. 80.

Persons called upon to teach language and speech to deaf children, and not having had opportunities of special training for the work, will find assistance in the suggestions of this book. The author is an experienced teacher, long associated with her husband, Mr. W. R. Roe, in the direction of the Royal Institution at Derby, England.

RZESNITZEK, Dr. EMIL. *Zur Frage der psychischen Entwicklung der Kindersprache* [An Inquiry concerning the Psychical Development of Speech in Children]. Breslau: 1899. 8vo, pp. 36.

In this treatise, the author, an instructor in the Breslau Institution for the Deaf, who has recently pursued a course of study in philosophy and modern languages in the Universities of Breslau and Zurich, and has received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, considers the development of speech in normal children. In a future treatise he intends to take up in like manner the development of gestures among the deaf,

and thus to lay a secure foundation for the most suitable method of instructing the deaf.

SBROCCA, FEDERICO. *L'Abate Antonio Provolo e il suo Metodo d'Insegnamento ai Sordomuti* [The Abbé Antonio Provolo and his Method of Instruction of Deaf-Mutes]. Alessandria: 1899. 8vo, pp. 30.

——— *Una Prova di Esame* [A School Examination]. Alessandria: 1899. 16mo, pp. 26.

The first-named of these two publications by the founder and director of the Institution at Alessandria, Italy, and editor of the periodical *Il Sordoparlante*, is an address delivered in the Municipal Theatre of Alessandria on the occasion of the closing exercises of the Institution, 1899, and the other is a comedy in two acts, performed by the pupils of the Institution on the same occasion.

TILLINGHAST, J. A., M. A. *Secondary Education for the Deaf of Great Britain.* Belfast: 1899. 12mo, pp. 19.

A paper read before the Third Conference of the National (British) Association of Teachers of the Deaf at Derby, 1899, and making an earnest and forcible appeal in behalf of opportunities for the higher education of the deaf of Great Britain similar to those afforded by Gallaudet College to the deaf of America.

PROCEEDINGS of the First, Second, Third, Fourth, Fifth, Sixth and Seventh Conventions of the Iowa Association for the Advancement of the Deaf. Grinnell, Iowa: 1899. 8vo, pp. 51.

PROCEEDINGS of the Fifth Convention of the Minnesota Association of the Deaf held in the State capitol, St. Paul, Minnesota, July 1-5, 1898. Faribault, Minn.: 1899. 8vo, pp. 52.

PROCEEDINGS of the Association of the Graduates and Former Pupils of the Wisconsin Schools for the Deaf, held at Delavan, Wis., June 11-15, 1898. 8vo, pp. 50.

REPORT of the Committee of Council on Education on Schools for the Blind and Deaf, with Appendices, 1898-'99. London: Eyre and Spottiswoode. 1899. 8vo, pp. 34.

The most important part of this Report is contained in Appendix I, which consists of the Report to the Council by

T. King, Esq., her Majesty's Senior Chief Inspector, on the Certified Schools for Blind and Deaf Scholars. Mr. King reports that there is now accommodation for 3,458 deaf children in certified schools in England and Wales, 1,741 in boarding institutions, and 1,717 in day-schools. This is more than the estimated number of deaf children in England and Wales, which is about 3,200. He adds, however, that the available accommodation in day-schools does not, in fact, approach the figure stated, which is obtained by calculating the area of the rooms used, not the number of rooms. He thinks that day-schools can be considered only as provisional; "the little classes of ten to twenty children scattered over the country are comparatively of little value."

With respect to the results of the oral method in England, Mr. King says that "no trustworthy estimate of its success can yet be formed; certainly there is no reason to give up the attempt as hopeless." The following remark shows that he does not fully appreciate the nature and results of instruction by the manual method: "By the manual method language is taught in signs only (writing, which is practised in both kinds of schools, is a sign), thus the deaf, taught by this method, express themselves in signs and understand signs only; they are therefore able to converse with the very small number of persons who are acquainted with the language of signs, for a conversation conducted in writing is hardly conceivable." More correctly he says, near the end of the Report: "The kind of speech, oral or manual, is in this point of view of less importance, for it is not so much the mechanical expression of the child's notions as the power of expressing them at all that is the great acquisition. This faculty they do acquire, and a surprising store of useful information also."

REPORTS OF SCHOOLS: (published in 1898) Florida, Pennsylvania Oral; (published in 1899) American, Birmingham (England), Bristol (England), Buenos Aires (Argentine Republic), Calcutta (India), Cambrian (Swansea, Wales), Edinburgh (Scotland), Genoa (Italy), Glasgow (Scotland), Liverpool (England), New York Improved Instruction, Northern New York, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Sbrocca (Alessandria, Italy), Tennessee.

E. A. F.

BARRY, KATHARINE E. *The Five-Slate System, a System of Objective Language Teaching.* Philadelphia: 1899. 4to, pp. 36.

All those who have been interested in "The Five-Slate System" as explained in the *Educator*, and especially those who have not had easy access to that publication, will hail with delight the appearance of Miss Barry's book, which describes and demonstrates this system more fully. No other system, in my estimation, is so simple, practical, and comprehensive for primary work, nor so easily and quickly used by the pupils. Presenting language, as it does, in a tangible form to the sight, makes it invaluable to the deaf as an aid in the acquisition of language.

After using this system for several years, I find it so valuable—in fact, I am so dependent upon it—that I do not see how any one can teach language successfully to the deaf without using it. This systematic classification of words and phrases from the very beginning lays a good foundation for the introduction of the principles of language construction. How easy to teach the names of the parts of speech when the pupils have, from the first, been classifying words and perceiving the office of each and their relation to one another.

I find that this system can be used very profitably, even beyond the third year, when teaching new forms of construction. The more one uses it the more comprehensive it appears.

The work as described in Miss Barry's book is taken up in a systematic way, and new forms and expressions are given when the pupils are ready for them; all the way through the principal aim is to lead the pupils to understand the practical utility of this language which they are learning from day to day—that it is a means by which they can make their wants known, and can tell of the things which happen in their little world.

The synopsis of primary work gives the work of the first three years in a nutshell, and shows an orderly and progressive treatment of the different forms of construction necessary for that period. Any beginning teacher left alone with her first primary class, feeling uncertain as to how to proceed in the language work, need make very few serious mistakes if she follows this system and the outline of work as planned in Miss Barry's book.

EFFIE JOHNSTON,

Instructor in the Illinois Institution, Jacksonville, Illinois.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Alabama School.—Miss Jessamine Curd, who was trained at the Missouri School, succeeds Miss McDaniel in the corps of instruction. The *Messenger* is now edited by Mr. Johnson.

American School.—The erection of a new building, to occupy a site on the grounds of the School facing Garden street, has been begun. The building will be completed early next summer. The following description is taken from the *Hartford Courant* of October 5 :

The material used in construction will be red brick with Flemish bond laid up in white mortar, and also used in quoins, the stone finish being gray Indiana limestone with base course of sandstone and steps of granite. Gray brick is called for on portions of the interior walls, notably throughout staircase enclosures, and at the main entrance vestibule and from beams and girders it also enters into the construction.

The roof will be covered with dark slate, and the lofty portico at the front as well as the piazza, two-storied in the rear, will be built of wood with metal roofs.

The building is 54 feet wide and 125 feet long, with wings on each corner, 17 x 20.8 feet, built at an angle of forty-five degrees from the main structure. It is three stories high exclusive of attic and basement, the latter owing to the nature of the site being advantageously located. The exterior is simply treated and devoid of elaboration, depending for effectiveness upon the massing of the features and carefully studied proportions. The plan is laid out on axis lines, giving the main entrance a central location and a central hall extending the entire length of the building. Mill construction or slow-burning construction will be used, and great care has been taken to avoid possibility of fire doing any damage. The outside walls are not furred but are plastered on hollow brick; the separate lines of staircase will be enclosed within brick walls and will be constructed of iron, with safety treads, and other protective features have been introduced.

The basement has two ample entrances and contains a dining-room, sun exposed, 30 x 42, and well lighted and furnished with open fire-place, the kitchen, serving-room, storeroom, pantry, servants' dining-room, large play-rooms and convenient toilets. The first floor is planned with six well lighted class-rooms and an office. In the rear are located the matron's room, between two studies, one for girls and one for boys. These rooms open upon a wide piazza, and each has a fire-place of stone. Upon the second floor are the various dormitories, equipped with lockers, the bath-rooms, supervisors' rooms, matron's chamber, and dining-

room for officers, served by a lift running in fire-proof shaft from serving-room below, also linen-rooms. The third floor contains rooms for teachers, sewing-room, spare chambers, and (separately planned and accessible from one of the main staircases) servants' quarters with bath-room. The principal features of this floor are two hospitals, each with private bath-room, and nurse's room in close proximity, with linen-rooms, near which is a lift. The hospitals have good sun exposure and are furnished with open fire-places.

The finish throughout will be principally brown ash, and floors will be laid with rift-grain hard pine. Hard plaster on metal lath will be used on ceilings and partition walls. Special attention will be paid to the subject of plumbing, and location of these fixtures has been carefully studied. The heating of the building will be accomplished by means of an outside plant. Steam heat will be used and a thorough system, both of heat and ventilation, will be installed. Iron fire escapes connecting with each floor are to be built at either end of the building.

Arkansas Institute.—The principal buildings of the Institute were totally destroyed by fire on the 30th of September last, at an estimated loss to the State of \$150,000, and of a considerable amount to officers and teachers, who lost all their personal effects. The fire broke out about two o'clock in the morning; the cause is not certainly known. As the term had not yet opened, there were only thirty-eight persons in the building, all of whom escaped. The school will probably open in temporary quarters about the first of January.

Central New York Institution.—Miss Mary E. Farrant succeeds Miss Morris as head of the articulation class, and Miss Jessie H. Skinner, formerly assistant in the kindergarten department, succeeds Miss Dobbins as head of the department. Miss Virena Warburton takes Miss Skinner's place. Miss Harriet Rhoads is granted leave of absence on account of ill health, and Miss Ella B. Jewell, a graduate of the Rome Free Academy and a daughter of Mr. T. H. Jewell, takes her place temporarily.

Cincinnati Oral School.—The School has been removed to 719 West Sixth Street, where a private residence has been remodelled so as to make suitable quarters for its work. A Parents' Association has been organized.

Iowa Institution.—Mr. Reuben E. Stewart, formerly of the Nebraska School, Miss Mamie Cool, of Council Bluffs, and

Miss Mollie Medcraft, formerly of the Kansas School, have been appointed teachers *vice* Mr. Robert D. Hoyt, Miss Cora Satterly, and Miss Ada Stephenson. Mr. Hoyt enlisted in the army and went to the Philippines.

The Omaha *Illustrated Bee* of October 22 contains an illustrated article describing the School.

Leeds (England) School.—A fine building accommodating 108 boarding pupils and 100 day scholars has been built for the education of the deaf and blind children by the School Board authorities. It was opened on the 5th of July last by Mrs. Henry Fawcett, widow of the late Postmaster-General. The Head Master of the school, Mr. E. A. Kirk, is a deaf man, and the Combined System of instruction is followed. Every child has at least a year's trial by the Oral method. The Oral and Manual classes are taught apart, but the pupils mingle out of school hours.

Missouri School.—Mr. D. W. McCue, a former teacher, has been appointed to succeed Mr. S. C. Bright and Miss Elenore Rickey, a supervisor and assistant teacher last year, has been appointed a teacher in the Oral Department. Mr. Henry Gross takes Mr. Bright's place as editor of the *Record*.

Ohio Institution.—The new school building described in the last January *Annals* was dedicated October 19 with suitable addresses from Mr. Jones, the Superintendent, the Hon. W. S. McElroy, of the Board of Trustees, and Governor Bushnell. The building was occupied the next day.

Oregon School.—Mr. Ralph H. Drought, a valued teacher, died during the summer at the home of his parents, Wardner, Idaho. He was employed in an assayer's office in that place, and, while engaged in sealing a car loaded with ore, was struck by a yard engine and instantly killed. Mr. Drought was a graduate of the Minnesota school and of Gallaudet College, and had taught in the Oregon School for three years. He was a young man of energy and ability, and his death is a loss to the work. Mr. George V. Bath, B. A., a graduate of the Ohio School and of Gallaudet College, has been elected to the vacancy occasioned by his death. Mr. J. B. Early, a former teacher in this School, Mrs. Clayton Wentz, M. S.,

wife of the superintendent, and Miss Eva B. Stafford, a teacher of experience in common schools, have been added to the corps of instruction.

The School has been reorganized on the Combined System, with three teachers in the Manual Department and three in the Oral. The teachers in the Manual Department refrain from the use of signs almost entirely. The name of the School paper has been changed from the *Sign* to the *Oregon Gazetteer*.

Pennsylvania Institution.—Miss Susan E. Bliss, a teacher in this Institution for the past seventeen years, succeeds Mr. Booth as Principal of the Intermediate and Manual Departments. Miss Butler, who left the Institution a year ago to teach a private pupil, has returned to the work, and Miss Tuttle, of Missouri, has been added to the corps of instruction. Mr. Joseph J. Bailey, formerly director of manual training in the West Chester public schools and Normal School, has been appointed to succeed Mr. Walker as Principal of the Industrial Department. Mr. S. G. Davidson, formerly editor of the *Mt. Airy World*, has returned to the post. The paper now appears every other week.

South Carolina Institution.—The following appointments have been made: Miss L. A. Beard, oral teacher, *vice* Miss M. C. Mauzy, resigned; Miss Harriet Avery, teacher of gymnastics and physical culture, *vice* Miss Weeden, who has taken work in Higbee School for Women, at Memphis, Tenn.; and Miss S. N. Rogers, B. A., a graduate of this Institution and of Gallaudet College, teacher in the Manual Department, *vice* Miss R. L. Tillinghast, resigned.

Washington State School.—A new Board of Trustees has been appointed, and they have re-elected Mr. Watson Director. Miss Carrie May Stinson, formerly of the North Carolina School, has been placed in charge of the articulation classes.

Western Pennsylvania Institution.—Miss Fannie Henderson has resigned to be married, and is succeeded by Miss Tillie Garman, an experienced teacher.

A new kindergarten building is in process of erection. It is between the girls' and boys' industrial buildings, and will be connected with the main building by a corridor. The size is

100 x 48 feet. In appearance it will resemble the main building. It will be fire-proof, and two stories and a basement in height. The basement will contain two playrooms—one for boys and one for girls—and the children will also have a playground separate from the larger boys and girls, which will be made out of a part of the present garden. The first floor will contain four schoolrooms and two large sitting-rooms. The second floor will contain dormitories, bathrooms, and rooms for two supervisors. The building will cost \$35,000.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The Paris Congress.—The Committee appointed by the Commissioner-General of the Paris Exposition of 1900 to organize an International Congress in the interests of the deaf has issued the following circular :

The Universal Exposition of 1900 is an auspicious occasion for reviving the traditions of the international congresses which have exercised so considerable an influence on the progress of the instruction of the deaf.

Educational questions occupy an important place in the minds of those who concern themselves with the defence of the interests of the deaf and who aspire to give them their legitimate rank in modern society.

Questions of assistance deserve similar solicitude.

In response to the desire expressed by the majority of foreign instructors and philanthropists, and by a certain number of persons in France, who have met the proposition of a congress with a cordial welcome, a commission has been formed, which has received from the Commissioner-General of the Exposition of 1900 the order to organize an International Congress for the study of questions of education and assistance of the deaf.

This Committee is divided into two sections, that of hearing persons and that of the deaf.

This division has appeared necessary, first, because deliberations in common are not possible; secondly, because, in the rather brief time which will be accorded it, the Congress will be able to consider a greater number of questions.

The sections deliberating separately, each of them will preserve the full and entire responsibility of the votes cast by it.

The Congress will assemble in the Exposition buildings on the 6th, 7th, and 8th of August, 1900.

Each section must decide what questions take precedence in importance and timeliness.

To ascertain the progress made in the last fifteen years; to try to unify, if possible, the processes which render the benefits of the oral method the most efficacious; to inquire what in the curriculum of schools should be particularly preserved or rejected; to adapt the programme of instruction to the different intellectual and physical aptitudes of deaf-mutes; to facilitate the admission of the most capable to agricultural, commercial, or industrial schools; to encourage the deaf-mute societies (for mutual benefit, fraternal aid, etc.,) and workingmen's associations; to study questions of assistance by giving employment: such are the objects which have led to the formation of the Committee of Organization.

This Committee has thought, also, that the instructors, philanthropists, and deaf-mutes of the entire world should know one another, exchange their views, and combine for the greatest good of those to whom they have consecrated their lives and their devotion.

The Committee is therefore certain that all those who have the interests of the deaf at heart will respond to the earnest appeal which is addressed to them.

It is hoped that they will be inspired by the general ideas expressed in this circular to formulate a certain number of questions for consideration.

The questions proposed by the greatest number will be the subjects of reports which will be discussed. Those relating to the section of deaf-mutes will be chosen by the Committee on Programme, according to the propositions which shall have been submitted to them before the first of November, 1899.

The reports, proceedings of the meetings, and papers contributed to the Congress which may not be read for lack of time, will be published in a volume, a copy of which each member of the Congress will be entitled to receive upon payment of an assessment of ten francs (two dollars).

This assessment is exacted for membership in the Congress. International Committees of Information will be created in France and for foreign countries. A Reception Committee will be at the services of members of the Congress.

A detailed circular will be addressed in due time to all persons asking for further information.

Another circular, relating especially to the section for the deaf, has been issued; it is published in full in the *Deaf-Mutes' Journal* and *Deaf-Mutes' Register* of October 26.

The President of the section for hearing persons is Dr.

Ladreit de Lacharrière, and communications may be addressed to him, quai Malaquais, 3, Paris, France; communications concerning the programme of the section for the deaf should be sent to Mr. Henri Gaillard, Secretary of the Committee on the Programme, rue d'Alesia, 111 ter, Paris, France.

The Census of 1900.—Under the law for the taking of the next census, as passed by the last Congress, no provision is made for the enumeration of the deaf and other special classes except in institutions. The American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf will make strenuous efforts to have the law so amended as to secure a census of the deaf.

The British Association of Teachers.—The Third Conference of the National Association of Teachers of the Deaf, held at the Royal Institution, Derby, England, August 2-4, 1899, was large and enthusiastic. Several able and valuable papers were read, and ample opportunity for discussion was given. The Braidwood medal, offered by Dr. Love and Mr. Addison of Glasgow for the best paper on "The Teaching of Language during the First, Second, and Third Years of a Deaf Child's School Life," was conferred upon Mr. John Beattie, of the Belfast Institution, the judges being Dr. Elliott, Mr. Van Praagh, and Mr. Addison. Nine papers were offered in competition for this medal. It was voted that the organ of the Association for the ensuing year should be the *Messenger*, published at Belfast.

Helen Keller's Examinations.—We have received the following letter from a gentleman who has been a warm friend of Helen Keller's for many years:

To the Editor of the Annals:

SIR: I regret to see on pages 397-8 of the September *Annals* an account of Helen Keller's examination for Radcliffe, which I presume is based on the article published in the Boston *Transcript*. Let me assure you that it is incorrect that Helen does not know American Braille; I know this in several ways, but this should suffice. In the "Helen Keller Souvenir," published by the Volta Bureau, Miss Sullivan contributes a paper addressed to Hon. John Hitz, dated March 15, 1892, in which she

states at the bottom of the third page of said letter (*Annals*, xxxvii, 143) that Helen wrote "The Frost King" "in Braille, as usual," and fixes the date of that writing as during October, 1891. Now, the Report of the British and Foreign Blind Association, of London, England, contains Helen's letter, dated "Tuscumbia, Ala., 24th October, 1892," saying: "I learned the English Braille in one afternoon. I have already read 'The Dog Tribe' and several of the magazines. This Braille system is not nearly so difficult as one would imagine at first."

This letter refers to some books in English Braille which I sent her, and I enclose you the leaf of the British and Foreign Blind Association's Report with the above letter and the bill of the Association for said books, dated September 9, 1892; by the note on the back of the same to the custom-house brokers in New York, you will see that the books had not started to Helen on October 1, 1892. (I also enclose the letter of Mr. Boyle, the executive of said Association, replying to mine sending him Helen's letter quoted above.) The printed records in the Volta Bureau publications show that Helen wrote a long story ("The Frost King") "in Braille, as usual," in October, 1891, and *her* letter shows that she learned English Braille in October, 1892. Therefore, it is evident that her "Frost King" was written in American Braille.

Helen's phenomenal memory puts it out of the question that she can have forgotten American Braille, as she has used it in her studies in preparation for Radcliffe, and, besides, it would be an unusually forgetful blind reader who would forget a print he or she had not used for five years.

Such statements about Helen always pain me, as they lend aid to the few enemies she has, in their statements that accounts of her "are gross exaggerations."

Yours truly,

W. WADE.

OAKMONT, PA., September 22, 1899.

The statement in the *Annals*, that Helen in her examination labored under the disadvantage of being unfamiliar with American Braille, was based upon an article in the Boston *Transcript* by Mr. Joseph Edgar Chamberlin, of whose household Helen has been a member much of the time since she left the Cambridge School, and upon an article in the New York *World* purporting to have been written by Helen herself. Mr. Chamberlin says in the *Transcript*:

. . . Here came in one of the additional points of Helen's handicap. There are two systems of Braille writing—the English and the American. . . . Helen has been accustomed to the English system. . . . As the arrangement with Mr. Vining [the gentleman who transcribed the examination papers into Braille for Helen's use] was completed but a

day or two before, and as it was not known to her that he did not write the English Braille, it was impossible to make any other arrangement. She had to puzzle out the unfamiliar method of writing, much as a writer of the Pitman stenography might use his sense of logic and general intelligence by a *tour de force* to enable him to read the Graham shorthand. . . . The Braille difficulty worked most heavily against her. . . . A slip prickd with unfamiliar characters was put before her.

Helen is represented in the *World* as saying:

. . . Mr. Eugene C. Vining was engaged to put the examination papers into it [Braille], and the examiners were willing. He was to send me some papers in Braille, so that I might notice any peculiarities in his machine. Well, they came, but they were in the American Braille. Mr. Vining knew no other. I had been accustomed to the English Braille, and only two days remained in which to make myself familiar with the American system. . . . I did not mind so much about the Greek, because Greek works are written in the American Braille. . . . But the mathematics! I did not know even the sign of equality in the American system. . . . I had been accustomed to reading Latin in the English Braille, and the American proved much more difficult. . . . I finished that day in happy mood, feeling sure that I had done well, notwithstanding the two Brailles. They are very different, too. Only twelve of the letters are alike. They are a, d, f, g, h, i, l, m, q, u, v, and w. T American is B English; C American is J English; J American is Y English; K American is R English; O American is E English; R American is C English; S American is K English, and so on. To one so fully accustomed to the English, the puzzling nature of the change can easily be understood.

But what I had gone through on the first day was easy compared with the second. Then the terrible mathematics began. I had worked hard at the Braille signs in the meanwhile, but nevertheless it was almost like learning a new language, and what could one do during only parts of two days? . . . I was like a woman translating from a language which she did not know. Some of the characters I recognized, and some I could only guess at, but I knew my subject well enough to realize that where certain things (which I recognized) were set down, there also certain other things were likely to be, even though I could not recognize them.

“*A New Deaf and Dumb Alphabet.*”—Under this title Lester Gilliams describes in *Pierson's Magazine* for November a manual alphabet “devised by an American gentleman, Mr. William Bridges, of Kansas City.” The article affords another illustration of the old proverb, “There is nothing new under the sun,” for the “new” alphabet is an almost ex-

act reproduction of the "glove alphabet" figured in George Dalgarno's "Didascalocophus, printed at the Theater in Oxford, Anno Dom. 1680," while John Bulwer, in his "Philocophus," published in 1648, mentions, as Dr. Gordon points out in his "Notes on Manual Spelling" (*Annals*, xxxi, 54), a still earlier alphabet of a similar character used by "one Master Babington, of Burntwood, whose Wife discourseth very perfectly with him by a strange way of Arthrologie or Alphabet contrived on the joynts of his Fingers." A facsimile of Dalgarno's alphabet was given in the *Annals*, vol. ix, page 19; a modification of it, used by Dr. Alexander Graham Bell in the instruction of a private pupil in 1872, and later in his "Experimental School" at Washington, may be found in the *Annals*, vol. xxviii, page 133, and another modification of it, devised by Mr. S. T. Walker for touch transmission by electricity, is figured in the *Annals*, vol. xxxi, page 43. The new alphabet differs from those just mentioned only in the location of some of the letters, and in adding marks of punctuation. It seems less convenient for practical use than any of them, as part of the letters are placed on the back of the hand. The claim that it is "vastly superior" to the one-hand and two-hand alphabets in common use among the deaf is not well founded. As Dr. Gordon says in the article above named: "An objection of Dr. Kitto to the two-hand alphabet so widely known by school children and others in Great Britain and in this country would seem to apply with greater force to the Dalgarno alphabet. 'To hit the right digit on all occasions is by far the most difficult point to learn in the use of the [two-hand] manual alphabet, and it is hard to be sure which fingers have been touched.'"

Speech-Reading at Long Range.—In the same number of *Pierson's Magazine*, Walter Wood has a story describing "The Disclosure of a State Secret." The disclosure is said to have been made through the agency of a former teacher of the deaf, who, with the help of strong field-glasses, was able, from the window of a house exactly opposite the residence of the Prime Minister, to read from his lips the words spoken by him in a Cabinet Council. She "followed every movement

of the Prime Minister's lips, and as the slow, deliberate, monotonous words were uttered, she repeated them to her husband at her side," who took them down from her dictation and sold them for a little fortune to an opposition evening journal.—If the author had made his expert lip-reader a deaf lady, instead of a hearing teacher of the deaf, the story would have had a *little* more vraisemblance for persons familiar with "the subtle art."

Periodicals.—The first number of the *Association Review*, the educational magazine published by the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, appeared in October. This number contains 128 pages, and is chiefly devoted to lectures, addresses, and papers given before the last Summer Meeting of the Association at Northampton. The following numbers, to a less extent, will be similarly occupied, but in due time departments will be established, each with its special subject and appropriate matter. The *Review* will be published bi-monthly during the school year, giving five numbers a year. It is sent free to members of the Association; for non-members the price is \$2.50 (10s. 4d.) per annum. Subscriptions should be addressed to the Editor, Mr. Frank W. Booth, 7342 Rural Lane, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia.

While the *Review* enters to some extent into the field occupied by the *Annals*, we do not look upon it as a hostile rival but as a friendly ally. We give it a cordial welcome, and trust the two magazines will work together harmoniously to promote the best educational and other interests of the deaf.

The two British periodicals, the *Deaf Monthly* and *Ephphatha* have been united into one. The name *British Deaf Monthly* is retained, and the editors are Messrs. Ernest J. D. Abraham and A. Macdonald Cuttall, assisted by Mr. George Frankland. The address is 15 Fold street, Bolton, England.

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AMERICAN ANNALS
OF
THE DEAF,

EDITED BY

EDWARD ALLEN FAY,

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

R. O. JOHNSON, OF INDIANA, F. D. CLARKE, OF
MICHIGAN, J. H. JOHNSON, OF ALABAMA,
W. K. ARGO, OF COLORADO, AND A. L. E.
CROUTER, OF PENNSYLVANIA,

Committee of the Conference

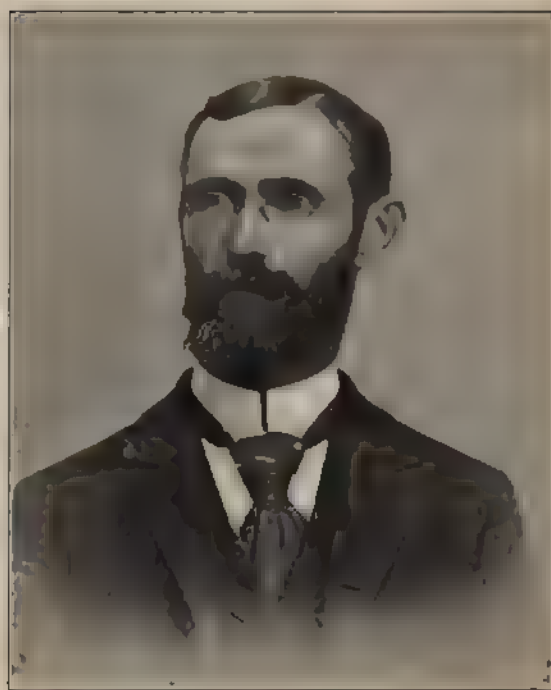
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Yours Sincerely,
D.C. Dudley

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

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JANUARY, 1900.

DAVID CHRISTOPHER DUDLEY.

DAVID CHRISTOPHER DUDLEY was born at Raleigh, North Carolina, April 24, 1848, and died at Redlands, California, November 17, 1899—and thus we have the title page and finish of a life devoted to the interests of the deaf, which, for nobility, sincerity of purpose, and success achieved, deserves to rank with the greatest that have graced the cause of the deaf.

Mr. Dudley's childhood and youth were spent at Raleigh, and here began his connection with the deaf. At the age of fourteen he entered the bookbindery of the North Carolina Institution as an apprentice. Always willing to oblige, always eager to seize every chance of self-improvement, he was soon marked above his fellows, and while still in his teens he acquired the capacity, steadiness, and knowledge of affairs of a mature man. Mr. William J. Palmer, then Principal of the Institution, frequently had occasion to require the young man's help, and it was not long before Mr. Dudley was asked to have no more to do with the outside of books, and was given a more promising and congenial position in the office. In 1870 he was appointed a teacher in the Institution and never was selection more happy. The six preceding years in the bookbindery and office were virtually an

apprenticeship to his future life-work, and few teachers have begun their task with a more intimate knowledge of the deaf, or with greater zeal, or with a more complete mastery of the necessary tools of the profession.

In 1872 Mr. Dudley married Miss Macarea Grissom, of Raleigh, who, with five daughters and one son, survives him. His domestic life was ideal. He was the constant companion and friend of his children, and was happiest when in the cheerful seclusion of his own fireside.

In 1879 Mr. Dudley was appointed Superintendent of the Kentucky School. He remained in charge five years, and it is no exaggeration to say that he practically placed this school on a modern basis and blazed the path for his successors. The equipment was augmented by the erection of two large buildings, the enrollment was greatly increased, and the colored department established.

But it was here that disease first marked him for its own. Never of robust health, unfavorable climatic conditions accelerated an hereditary tendency to consumption, and in 1884 he was compelled to yield his post in Danville and remove to Colorado, which henceforth was to be the scene of his labors.

Fortunately he recuperated rapidly. Moreover, his coming was most opportune for the Colorado School, which then enjoyed an unsavory reputation. In the brief period from 1880 to 1884, Messrs. Ralstin, Kinney, McGregor, Downing, Walker, and Blattner had followed one another in quick succession as Principals. The last Superintendent (not one of the gentlemen just named as Principals) had fled from the State under the charge of shooting at one of the boys with intent to kill. Mr. Dudley was offered charge of the School and he accepted. His knowledge of affairs, sound judgment, and organizing skill were just what the demoralized and struggling school needed. Its entire arrangement was put upon a new basis. The laws and regulations in the statutes of Colorado which

now govern its existence were almost entirely of Mr. Dudley's suggestion and framing, and he was virtually the founder of the School as it exists to-day.

The majority of the readers of the *Annals* know Mr. Dudley best from his connection with this School. Many of them must have pleasant and undying recollections of the hospitality accorded them on the occasion of their visit to the wonderland of the Pike's Peak region during the never-to-be-forgotten trip overland to the California Convention in 1886. Those conversant with the history of the School and the Augean condition it had been in must have marveled at the change wrought in the two short years since he took hold.

But the hand of fate was again heavy on our friend. Hardly was his work well under way before he again broke down. What might almost be termed excessive devotion to duty brought on a hemorrhage of the lungs, and he had to retire in December, 1887. But in the fall of 1888 he again returned to the work as head teacher of the School, Mr. John E. Ray having assumed the superintendency. On the retirement of Mr. Ray in 1894, Mr. Dudley was once more elected Superintendent, and he continued in office until last February, when he sent in his final resignation, and was succeeded by Mr. W. K. Argo. In the previous autumn tired nature had once more given way, and in November he was compelled to leave us and seek relief in a more genial clime. A few months were spent at Tucson, Arizona, and then the physicians recommended a further change, advising Redlands in sunny southern California. There in nature's paradise the end came. The body was brought home for burial, and now rests in Evergreen Cemetery, in the shadow of the Peak he loved so well. His spirit is with Him who gave it.

I well remember my first meeting with the man. It was in 1879, shortly after Mr. Dudley's appointment as the head of the Kentucky School. He was making a tour

of the more eastern schools to study methods and conditions with a view of putting the knowledge gained to good account at Danville, and among the schools he visited was that at Frederick, Maryland. Mr. Dudley's former colleagues and acquaintances at Raleigh, Messrs. Hill and Grow, had told us the story of his career, and it was with the greatest expectancy that we looked forward to a meeting with the man who had worked his way from an apprenticeship in the bookbindery of the Raleigh School to the superintendency of one of the oldest schools in the Union. We found him a courteous, kindly gentleman, and during the few days of his stay he made friends who are his friends to-day, and who mourn his passing away as a personal loss. I was then merely a pupil at the School, but had I been a colleague grown grey in harness, I could not have met with greater consideration. I felt at ease at once. This same unfailing courtesy to all manner and conditions of men was one of his dominant characteristics, and the trait was especially marked in his intercourse with the deaf. His mastery of the sign-language and his ready sympathy were such that more than once he was taken for one of themselves by the deaf at conventions and elsewhere. The ease and quick willingness with which he served as interpreter in conversations where hearing persons were present will readily be brought to mind by his deaf friends and associates. In fact, he was a sincere lover of the deaf—a loyal friend and champion. A large percentage of deaf persons was employed in his school, not only among the manual teachers, but also among the officers and employees.

Though not a college-bred man, Mr. Dudley nevertheless acquired a liberal education in the best sense of the word. The Master's degree was bestowed upon him by Wake Forest College *honoris causa*, but he had nevertheless taken a course and privately sustained an examination that would have covered the Bachelor's degree.

The habits of study and reading acquired in his early years continued unbroken to the last. The great masters of English literature were his friends, and French and German he read with that ease which is one of the first requisites of pleasure. Only two months before he left us in November of last year, we read Lessing's *Emilia Galotti* and *Nathan der Weise* together.

With innate modesty Mr. Dudley used to ascribe the formation of this habit of study to the influence of a friend of his youth, Mr. John Simpson, a valued teacher in the blind department of the Raleigh School, and himself blind; but the benefit must have been reciprocal, for in such things Mr. Dudley never took more than he gave.

Our friend was a delightful companion and talker. Well-read and a close observer, he was at home on almost any subject. He not only relished a good story, but had an inexhaustible fund of anecdotes. It was a constant marvel among his friends where he had gathered them. Somehow they always possessed the charm of being new and apposite. How easy it is to recall the genial, kindly face and hearty laugh he had on such occasions. Even when racked with pain upon a sick bed, the sunny side of his temper was always uppermost.

Mr. Dudley was as fluent with his pen as with his tongue. His letters to his friends would serve as models in these days, when letter-writing is almost classed among the lost arts. I have seen verses of his composition that struck me with their beauty of thought and expression. His contributions to our professional literature, while not extensive, are marked by sound judgment and great earnestness. Of late years he conducted the editorial page of the *Colorado Index*, and the frequency with which he was quoted by the other school papers attests the weight accorded to his opinions. While Superintendent of the Kentucky School he prepared an arithmetic which has been found serviceable in many of our schools in teaching the essential parts of elementary arithmetic.

As a teacher Mr. Dudley was eminently successful. He was in immediate charge of a class-room at least sixteen years—ten at Raleigh and six at Colorado Springs. His whole career was marked by never-flagging zeal, earnestness, resourcefulness, and conscientious devotion to duty. His patience and gentle nature won the love of his pupils, while they excited the admiration and emulation of his fellow-teachers. To these qualities was added a magnificent will-power. Even in his later years, when suffering from disease, his gallant spirit overcame the promptings of physical weakness, and he was efficient and cheerful where most other men would have succumbed. As a friend remarked, nothing sustained him these last few years but his indomitable will. Those who knew him best knew it was Jacob struggling with the angel. He had given hostages to fortune, and not until his loved ones were provided for did he yield his arms.

Our friend's whole life was such as to be an inspiration to all men. He was essentially a self-made man. He was a successful man if we apply the real measure of success. Best of all, he was a true man, a good man. His piety was sincere, and without cant. He might justly quote the words of another and earlier Christian and lover of men—"I have fought a good fight, I have finished my course, I have kept the faith."

GEORGE W. VEDITZ,

Instructor in the Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colorado.

LESSONS IN LANGUAGE.

THERE are teachers who like to work out theories in their own way ; others gain a clearer idea of methods and principles by studying the practical operations that bring forth results. In the pages which follow I have tried to illustrate by practical work the principles presented in the article on "Systematic Instruction in Language," in the *Annals* for June, 1899. Take the following story and give it to the class for evening study :

The Ministry of Affliction.

An invalid of twenty years, whose sufferings were extreme, was one night thinking of the reason of this long-continued affliction. Suddenly the room was filled with light, and a beautiful form bent over her, saying, "Daughter of sorrow, art thou impatient?" "No, but I am full of pain and disease and I see no end, nor can I see why I must suffer thus. I know I am a sinner, but I hoped that Christ's sufferings and not mine would save me. Oh! why does God deal thus with me?" "Come with me, daughter, and I will show thee." "But I cannot walk." "True, true! There, gently, gently!"

He tenderly took her up in his arms, and carried her over land and water, until he set her down in a far-off city, and in the midst of a large workshop. The room was full of windows and the workmen seemed to be near the light, and each with his own tools, and all seemed to be so intent upon their work that they neither noticed the new-comers nor spoke to one another. They seemed to have small brown pebbles, which they were grinding and shaping and polishing. Her guide pointed her to one who seemed to be most earnestly at work. He had a half-polished pebble, which was now seen to be a diamond, in a pair of strong iron pincers. He seemed to grasp the little thing as if he would crush it, and to hold it on the rough stone without mercy. The stone whirled, and the dust flew, and the jewel grew smaller and lighter. Ever and anon he would stop, hold it up to the light, and examine it carefully. "Workman," said the sufferer, "will you please tell me why you bear on and grind the jewel so hard?" "I want to grind off every flaw and crack in it." "But don't you waste it?" "Yes; but what is left is worth so much the more. The fact is, this diamond, if it will bear the wheel long enough, is to occupy a very important place in the crown we are making for our king. We take much more pains with such. We have to grind and polish them a great while; but, when they are done, they are very beautiful. The king was here yesterday, and was much pleased with our work, but wanted this jewel, in particular, to be ground and polished a

great deal. So you see how hard I hold it down on this stone. And, see! there is not a crack or flaw in it! What a beauty it will be!"

Gently the guide lifted up the poor sufferer, and laid her down on her own bed of pain. "Daughter of sorrow, dost thou understand the vision?" "Oh! yes; but may I ask you one question?" "Certainly." "Were you sent to me to show me all this?" "Assuredly." "Oh! may I take to myself the consolation that I am a diamond, and am now in the hands of the strong man who is polishing it for the crown of the Great King?" "Daughter of sorrow, thou mayest have that consolation; and every pang of suffering shall be like a flash of lightning in a dark night, revealing eternity to thee; and hereafter thou shalt run without weariness, and walk without faintness, and sing with those who have 'come out of great tribulation.'"

The pupils begin the recitation by writing original questions. These should be supplemented by the teacher so that all the important points are brought out, and, if possible, new thoughts stimulated and the lesson of the story revealed. In order to save time, questions which have reference to facts and those which may be answered in a few words are disposed of rapidly by finger-spelling. Those answers which are to embody the pupil's thoughts and express his individuality are written out on paper, corrected by the teacher, and copied on the wall-slates for the benefit of the class. It is not necessary to reproduce here all the questions asked, but a few, designed to bring out the teaching of the lesson, will indicate the range of thought. The average time in school of the class is eight years; three have been in school six years; four, seven years, and the high average is due to a few who have been in school from ten to thirteen years. Much better results have been secured in higher grades, but the results presented in this article are from the lowest grade in which these methods were used.

Explain the meaning of this vision.

Answers:

It means that it is trouble that makes our characters beautiful.

It means that our troubles will make us happy at last and perfect our characters.

I understand it a little. The angel took the sufferer to show her that

she was like a diamond, and she was being polished for the crown of the Great King.

I think its meaning is that a person who is an invalid on the earth and suffers pain will, when her end comes, have her pains removed, and she will be very beautiful and happy in heaven. The diamond was rough when it was first found; but after it was polished, it was beautiful and bright. The afflicted person is like a diamond. She has much pain and her character is like a diamond in the rough; but if she has a character of diamond, it will polish, and it will become beautiful and bright like the diamond.

What consolation had the sufferer after seeing the vision?

Answers :

She had been comforted by an angel who carried her to the workshop and treated her kindly. The invalid still suffered pain and trouble, but she felt God was polishing her for His kingdom.

The sufferer had the consolation that she was a diamond and was in the strong hands of one who was polishing her for His kingdom.

She felt she was to be a diamond for God.

What is the mission of affliction?

Answers :

Partly to punish us, but if we try to do good and bear our troubles, we shall have a good character.

God gives us troubles to punish us, and also to bring out the beauties of our character.

We must try to learn from our troubles and then we shall walk in the right way.

Because God wants to see if we are patient in trouble.

God gives us some troubles to punish us, but he gives us others for the purpose of seeing if we can bear them without complaint, and to see if we still love Him and believe in Him.

The exercises in language designed to increase the pupil's vocabulary and give variety in idiomatic expression may become very valuable by reason of the new associations formed. Reference to previous lessons, the studies pursued under other teachers, the trades, and the principles of right living should be made constantly. By referring to the Thesaurus we shall find material for language work under number 378, Physical Pain; 828, Pain; 830 [Capability of giving pain; cause or source of

pain], Painfulness; 839 [Expression of pain], Lamentation; 735, Adversity. Then we shall find another principle—the motive or purpose of affliction—illustrated under number 615, Motive; and 620, Intention. The words and phrases in most common use are incorporated into sentences and written on the blackboard for the pupils to copy in their blank books. A few examples will show how these sentences may serve to review previous lessons and form new associations:

Pain (Physical).

1. The *pain* of the stings made Pandora and Epimetheus cry. 2. The boy at the dyke endured cold and *suffering* without complaint to save the people of Holland. 3. Many old people have *aches* and pains, because they did not take proper care of themselves when they were young. 4. Charles told me that he had a *shooting pain* in his head. I think he uses his eyes too much. 5. I sometimes have a *sharp pain* in my side after running hard. 6. Henry has a *dull pain* in his head caused by eating too much.

Pain (Mental).

7. Do you believe people have many *cares* and *troubles* because Pandora opened the box? 8. A mother's *anxiety* for her children often makes her grow old fast. 9. David's *grief* at the death of his son Absalom was sad. 10. We ought to comfort those who are *in sorrow*. 11. God only can heal the *broken heart*. 12. Drunkenness causes many a *heart-ache*.

Adversity.

13. Several pupils cannot return to school on account of *hard times*. 14. It will *go hard with* you after you leave school unless you study while you have opportunity. 15. Many a man *comes to grief* by drinking whiskey.

The pupils write original sentences, using the same words and phrases, and read the sentences composed by other members of the class.

The next exercise is the analogous story, an exercise which added experience convinces me is one of the best for developing original thought, stimulating research, and aiding the acquisition of language. Examples would be an unnecessary repetition to readers of the *Annals*. Pupils once trained in this method will surprise you with the

keenness of their observation, and the analytical power that develops with practice.

The exercises up to this point are fruitful in results, both in providing information and training the mental powers, and they also furnish the raw materials for the crowning effort, which is the composition. We must be sure that the pupil has thoughts, that he has made observations, and that he has been supplied with important facts concerning a given subject before we ask him to perform the work called composition. Much will depend upon the carefulness of this preparation. The assembling of these materials and their arrangement in a clear and logical statement should be done at first under the direction of the teacher, each member of the class doing as much as he can toward building up the thought and watching every operation as it is performed. The following outline of paragraph structure, taken from Genung's "Practical Elements of Rhetoric," will be of service as a guide:

The subject proposed.

I. Whatever is needed to explain the subject.

Repetition.

Obverse.

Definition.

II. Whatever is needed to establish the subject.

Exemplification or detail.

Illustration.

Proof.

III. Whatever is needed to apply the subject.

Result or consequence.

Enforcement.

Summary or recapitulation.

It will not be necessary or even desirable to include all of these topics in every paragraph, some subjects requiring for their best treatment one topic, and some another; but in general the outline presents all the elements needed in the development of the subject.

The results which follow represent original thought, observation, and investigation on the part of the pupils,

combined with instruction and direction on the part of the teacher. As the class progresses and the pupils begin to understand the meaning of the terms of the outline, fewer details are suggested by the directions, and finally the pupils depend solely upon the outline. Following the outline, the teacher gives the direction : " Write a statement about the uses of affliction." Among the statements given, the teacher selects the best, or he may combine two or more of the pupils' statements for the topic sentence. Thus we have : " Afflictions are given to punish us and also to bring out the beauties of character." Teacher's direction : " Repeat this thought in other words, an idiomatic or a figurative expression. For instance, what brings out the sailor's skill and the qualities of a soldier ? " The pupils reply, and we add the following to our topic sentence : " It is the storms at sea that make the skilful sailor ; it is the hardship and battle that bring out courage, patience, and patriotism in the soldier." Taking up the obverse, the teacher asks : " What would be the result if there were no hardships and afflictions ? " From the various answers, the teacher selects the following : " If we had no troubles or hardships in life, our bodies, minds, and hearts will not grow, and we should not become so wise and perfect in character as those who have to struggle." Passing over definition and taking up details, the teacher directs : " Give the effects of different afflictions ; for instance, on the body and on the mind and heart." Selecting and combining the best thoughts of the pupils, we have : " Sickness and pain teach us to respect our bodies, and the duty of caring for them. It is the same with the mind and heart ; our troubles are constantly teaching us the value of industry, patience, courage, helpfulness, and thoroughness ; they teach us to improve our minds and strengthen our characters." The teacher may add a thought : " Many a mother has been drawn to love and trust God by the death of a favorite child. Many a

drunken father has been led to a life of soberness and usefulness in the same way." Teacher directs: "Give an illustration." We select the following for our paragraph: "If Joseph had remained with his father, probably he would have become a good shepherd and nothing more, but the persecution by his brothers and the trials of slavery brought out the honesty and power of his character, and he became an officer of great influence." Direction: "Describe the effects of affliction in different persons." "Afflictions make some people worried and discouraged; others are made hard and revengeful; but the wise man takes his afflictions kindly and tries to profit by them." Direction: "How should we take our afflictions?" "If we have afflictions, we should try to bear them with patience and cheerfulness, and try to improve in mind and character." Direction: "Give a Bible quotation that applies to this subject." "We should always remember that 'Whom the Lord loveth he chasteneth.'" The completed paragraph to be copied and studied in connection with the directions and the outline is as follows:

The Mission of Affliction.

Afflictions are given to punish us, and also to bring out the beauties of character. It is the storms at sea that make the skilful sailor; it is the hardship and battle that bring out courage, patience, and patriotism in the soldier. If we had no troubles or hardships in life, our bodies, minds, and hearts would not grow, and we should not become so wise and perfect in character as those who have to struggle. Sickness and pain teach us to respect our bodies, and the duty of caring for them. It is the same with the mind and heart; our troubles are constantly teaching us the value of industry, patience, courage, helpfulness, and thoroughness; they teach us to improve our minds and strengthen our characters. Many a mother has been drawn to love and trust God by the death of a favorite child. Many a drunken father has been led to a life of soberness and usefulness in the same way. If Joseph had remained with his father, probably he would have become a good shepherd and nothing more; but the persecution by his brothers and the trials of slavery brought out the honesty and power of his character, and he became an officer of great influence. Afflictions make some people worried and discouraged; others are made hard and revengeful; but the wise man takes his afflictions kindly and tries to profit by them. If we

have afflictions, we should try to bear them with patience and cheerfulness, and try to improve in mind and character. We should always remember that "Whom the Lord loveth he chasteneth."

The following, by the same class at a later date, is more the work of the pupils, and the task of arranging the thoughts was often little more than selecting the best way of expressing the same thought from the pupils' work. The illustrations of several pupils are combined in the paragraph.

The Will.

Force of will leads us to success. Like the captain and helm of a ship, our wills guide us through trouble and danger to safety and success, and make us able to relieve others. One who has a weak will is often afraid to do brave deeds and he is unable to save himself or others from danger. Such a person, like a ship without a rudder, is unable to save himself from danger, and he drifts about till he is wrecked. The following story illustrates this: General Putnam and his soldiers one night stole quietly in a boat to the enemy's ship and put wedges between the ship's side and the rudder. The next morning the sails of the ship were fluttering, and the ship drifted to land, where she was captured. Will is the power of our minds that decides, and makes us persevere through danger and trouble until we succeed. It is the will that makes us do right and resist doing wrong; it makes us do brave deeds, and stand firmly by our principles; it makes us bear our troubles and struggle against difficulties until we remove them; it is the will that makes us try to live better lives. Andrew Jackson is one of the best examples of strong will power. It was his force of will that made him defy the British general who ordered him to black his (the general's) boots. It led him through many battles and gave him the name of "Old Hickory." It was Lincoln's will that brought him through the countless dangers and failures of the civil war and made him successful. It was Grant's iron will that made him stand before his enemies and say, "I propose to fight it out on this line, if it takes all summer." It is best for us to cultivate our will power while we are young. We must be careful, in reading or studying, to keep our minds on our work, if we wish to have knowledge and form right habits. If we meet little troubles we must have will to bear them, and then we shall gain strength to bear greater ones. Our will power will be improved by doing all our duties faithfully, by fixing upon our principles and standing firmly by them.

The following paragraphs are selected from the first attempts of the pupils without the aid of the teacher:

Opportunity.

People who use their opportunities generally succeed. One who does not use his opportunities in youth never can become great. A person often neglects an opportunity to save himself when he is in danger or trouble, until it leads him to failure and wretchedness. A man one day climbed down a rope to get some eggs on a ledge of rock. In some way he lost hold of the rope. When the rope was about to stop swinging, the man thought of it, and determined to save his life. He jumped and caught the rope. Opportunity is to have time to do something to better ourselves before time of difficulty comes. By using every opportunity during youth we shall make our lives useful.

Seizing Opportunities.

Opportunities improved lead to success. If we do not seize our opportunities, we shall come to poverty and want. We must seize opportunities before we lose them. Many people neglect their opportunities and fail in life. The man who hunted eggs and nearly lost his opportunity by letting the rope slip from his grasp was careless. We came to school to improve our opportunity by studying our lessons. Don't give up your opportunity to get an education, but keep at it, and you will win success. We have our opportunity while we are in school and we must use it before the time of school-life ends.

It is not the purpose of this article to treat exhaustively of composition and its various divisions, but it is an attempt to show how a series of exercises, each valuable in itself, may be made to center in a definite subject, one step preparing the way for the next until the whole is woven into the intellectual fiber.

Stories which combine action with a sympathetic relation to life, and those which attract the attention by their novelty, yet are true to life, are best adapted to this work. Questions such as, "Is it true? Could it be true? Is the principle true?" often arise, and they are best answered by a study of the pupils' analogous stories. That the pupils are *thinking* is evident at every stage of their work. The pupil who gave the following answer on the spur of the moment may never become an Addison or a Macaulay, but he will do his own thinking. The question was, "Why did the fox that lost his tail beg the other foxes to cut

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THE EDUCATION OF
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CONCLUSION

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thirty to forty minutes each in articulation, lip-reading, language lessons, arithmetic, kindergarten work, sewing and knitting, drawing and modelling, sloyd or wood-working, and then common games of children. In the oral schools, however, pupils of the same age have to pass four hours of the forenoon, with, perhaps, a recess of from fifteen to twenty minutes, in the same room, and are bored and tortured with soul-killing exercises in articulation and the copying of a few letters and words. Under such circumstances can it be astonishing that the pupils of American schools distinguish themselves above their German cousins by a general mental activity and better breeding? On one side we have an harmonious development of mind and body, a wholesome change, suited to the nature of children, from work to recreation, and from the acquisition of book knowledge to manual occupations; on the other side we have drill and soulless mechanism, a sort of training diametrically opposed to child nature and calculated to destroy in the root the sprouting mental life of the child. On one side we find a union of all the various forces to give the deaf-mute complete possession of verbal language, to place him upon the culture level of his nation, and to make him a useful member of society; on the other side we only consider speech, and are satisfied to teach the deaf the art of speaking, and we hope, by this "almost divine occupation," to "compel in everybody respect." The Pure Oral method attempts to educate the deaf-mute in a language and by means of a language which he does not possess, and which, in many cases, he is unable to acquire in sufficient measure, and therefore this method, with the majority of deaf-mutes, leads to the miserable condition of a fool who would live on an income without having any capital. Only the brightest deaf-mutes and the semi-mute and semi-deaf manage to survive this method, which on the other hand offers dull pupils almost nothing. Its use in the case of dull children cannot be too severely condemned.

I do not doubt for a moment that the days of the Pure Oral method are numbered and that it must yield to a system in which the manual alphabet will have a prominent place. Again, I do not claim that even after the introduction of this innovation the ripe fruit will fall into our lap of its own accord; it will require, just as in the past, the exertion of all our powers in order to reach moderately satisfactory results. Even with the adoption of the best method we shall remain behind the Americans, for there are features there which are either entirely absent or can be imitated only imperfectly and with difficulty in Germany. Among these features I count, in the first place, the simple structure of the English language. In addition the course of instruction in many schools extends from twelve to fifteen years. During this time the pupils live under the same roof with most of their teachers, and this familiar relation which extends outside the school-room is of the greatest educational value to the American deaf. Finally, to all these advantages we must add Gallaudet College at Washington, which offers a higher education to the brightest deaf of the entire Union, and which, thus far, stands unique, since want of means renders a similar college simply a pious wish to the German deaf, probably for a long time to come.

I therefore left the shores of the New World with a certain faint-heartedness. Never has the question of the education of the deaf appeared more difficult to me than since my visit to the American schools. But at the same time the insufficiency of the Pure Oral method was never so clear in my mind, and never did I feel the necessity of a reorganization of the education of the deaf in Germany as imperiously as now, after the exciting impressions I received from the flourishing condition of the education of the deaf in the United States.

But even in Germany very much has been done of late years for the education of the deaf. In 96 schools 6,600

pupils divided into 670 classes receive systematic instruction from 721 teachers, most of whom had to pass an examination to show their fitness. Most of the schools boast of an eight-year course and are equipped with apparatus in such a manner as to satisfy the most exacting demands. Under these circumstances I therefore think it at least hazardous everlastingly to ascribe the unsatisfactory results of instruction to unfavorable external conditions. If with the present arrangements we are still unable to give the deaf at least a meagre elementary education* there is danger that the authorities will lose confidence in our cause.

The authorities have a right to expect that we shall not dreamily move on in old ruts, but shall search for ways and means to trade efficiently with the pounds entrusted to us. To perfect the methods of education is our first duty as teachers. It is for us to keep an alert eye that the whole system of instruction shall conform to the altered conditions of modern times. The conditions in most of the schools changed years ago, and the process of instruction and education must alter its form likewise.

Even as late as ten or fifteen years ago, pupils entered school at the age of ten. To-day admission is granted at six or seven years, so that the schools now present a very different picture.† Six-year old children, most of them neglected both bodily and mentally, require very different treatment than those of ten or eleven. Most of our new

* Even with an eight-year course we can expect only a meagre elementary education. For it must be considered that we must bring our pupils to a point which hearing children have already reached on entering school. In addition we must perform the work of the common school with children who have but four senses. Our task is therefore much more extensive than that of the common school.

† The number of the deaf is diminishing, but not so much as is generally supposed. During the increase and growth of schools for the deaf in the seventies sufficient allowance was not made for the results of cerebro-spinal meningitis, which was epidemic in many parts of Germany in 1864-'65.

pupils are, in fact, still incapable of instruction, for they lack that degree of mental stability which the arrangements of larger schools imply. These young children require in many cases special attendance, they need different treatment in regard to food and clothing, and their day's work should be of a different order from that of the older pupils. Under all circumstances we should therefore endeavor to prepare a preliminary stage for these children, following the American model, no matter whether we call it children's home, kindergarten, or preparatory school.

Altered conditions lend emphasis to the necessity of a reform in the educational system of the deaf. If the present process of instruction raised doubt in past years, it is simply criminal under existing conditions. It is monstrous to confine deaf children six or seven years old from day to day in a school-room for four hours at a stretch, and to torture them with mechanical sound and speech exercises. It offends against all the laws of pedagogy, human development, and humanity to attempt, under existing conditions, to base the whole process of instruction upon speech. In our case the words of the great Amos Comenius are singularly appropriate: "If we do not know how to attract the mind of the child with artful kindness, we shall certainly employ force in vain."

The instruction in articulation and first lessons in language in vogue to-day do violence to the mind of the child. These little ones, six or seven years old, retarded as they are in their mental and physical development, do not yet possess that measure of self-control and attention which is necessary in order to grasp and imitate the obscure articulatory movements. To loose the tongue of the dumb is the highest and most difficult task we can impose upon a teacher. This task does not so much require special knowledge as love for the children combined with that gift from heaven, patience. And if this task is not undertaken with rare delicacy, if the teacher

attempts to accomplish with violence what he is unable to attain with patience and long-suffering, then the budding soul of the child may close itself, and for years resist all educational influences. The younger our pupils are on entering school, the more unnatural is the Pure Oral method, and the greater the number of dismal failures. Any candid person must perceive and confess that these castaways may be compared with those hot-house plants which, when set out too early or otherwise maltreated, grow into the earth, instead of budding and striving toward the sun. The altered conditions of modern times render a thorough renovation in the educational process of the deaf an imperious necessity. In this reorganization the larger schools especially must undergo rejuvenation, and break a path in the question of methods.

Experience has shown that Mr. Vatter was correct when he asserted that deaf-mutes who converse exclusively in signs, and make these the medium of their thought and expression, fail in the use of verbal language. Inspector Stahm of Langenhorst is right when he says in his Course of Study that, wherever the sign-language has the upper hand, trying to teach verbal language is nothing more than pouring water into the sieve of the Danaides. In school the sign-language is always a hindrance to verbal language, and, wherever this fox in the chicken yard is tolerated, schools are neither fish nor flesh; they are without method, no matter how emphatically they assert their allegiance to the Pure Oral method. But most of our German schools are to-day in this unenviable condition. How is this evil to be remedied?

From the preceding remarks the reader will entertain no doubt that, wherever the Pure Oral method is found impracticable, I recognize the sole means of salvation in the introduction of the manual alphabet. The introduction of this form of verbal language will, however, meet

with greater difficulties than, at first thought, one would suppose. It would be useless to give the manual alphabet to deaf-mutes who think in the formless sign-language, for they would continue to think in signs as before and would spell the same jargon that they speak and write. The conventional sign-language has the power and injurious influence to give the thought and language processes of the deaf a direction that cannot be brought into harmony with verbal language. The present generation of our pupils, which already thinks in signs, is virtually lost to verbal language. Those schools that are suffering from the sign pestilence must therefore be reorganized from the bottom up—that is, the new method must begin with the new pupils, measures being taken that these young pupils come as little as possible into contact with the old pupils using signs.

The difficulties mentioned here might be overcome if the authorities would decide to establish primary schools or kindergartens. The little deaf-mutes might remain in these preparatory schools two or three years, and, if they were kept separate from the older pupils after they entered the regular institution, I believe the schools could be rid of the sign-language in seven or eight years. This is the only way left us to rejuvenate our schools and to bring the deaf to a command of verbal language. Any other plan, though accompanied with the most lavish expenditure of means, cannot produce so successful a result.

The question as to the personnel of the teaching force in these preparatory schools is no less important. In some American kindergartens they employ deaf teachers, who are well qualified in many respects, most of them having been trained at Gallaudet College in Washington. Mr. Carrier, of New York, regards hearing persons who have deaf parents or brothers and sisters, and are therefore accustomed to associate with the deaf from their

earliest youth, as the best teachers. In Rochester they prefer for this purpose trained kindergartners and women teachers who understand nothing of the sign-language, but are skilled in the use of the manual alphabet. I regard this last choice as the best. At any rate, it is advisable to employ women teachers in the lower classes of our schools, more than has been the custom heretofore. What we desire for these little deaf children is to make them as susceptible as possible to instruction; to remove their bashfulness, and to strengthen their self-confidence and their confidence in their teacher. The art of the teacher in the lower classes consists more in descending to the level of his pupils than in raising them to his own, and this gift is possessed in a greater degree by the fair sex, especially young ladies of a cheerful disposition, than by sober, mature men.

At the first glance into the lower classes of American schools, I recognized the employment of women teachers as an improvement, and as advantageous both to the purpose of education and to the school treasury. I therefore agree with Dr. Treibel, formerly Director of the Royal Institution at Berlin, when he says, in his report on the Milan Congress, that women teachers render efficient service in instructing deaf children, and that "in teaching the youngest pupils, to lead whom a kind hand is required more than anything else, they are of a pedagogic importance that should not be underestimated. Experience and study have strengthened my conviction that women are especially adapted for the moral training and intellectual education of deaf children and that their more extensive employment in this Samaritan work will be followed by the happiest results."

A few words upon another question of the day.

Lately more and more voices have been heard attacking the larger institutions and making them responsible for the general want of success. It is remarkable, how-

ever, that no one thinks it necessary to prove that the smaller schools are one iota better in their achievements than the large ones. Do they want us to believe that the children in the smaller schools really think in speech and that they do not use signs? According to statistics at hand, there are forty-one schools in Germany with less than fifty pupils (the average number of pupils is between thirty and thirty-one). Most of these schools are scarcely known, even by name. Is this obscurity an evidence of their magnificent achievements? Taking a luxurious school like that at Frankfort-on-the-Main * (formerly it was Riehen) as a model has been followed by the most unhappy results for the deaf of Germany, and is responsible for the entire misery of the present day. Has not history taught us often enough that the glory of such a school may find its grave in that of its founder? The superiority of a majority of the smaller schools should first be demonstrated by facts and figures, and, after this has been done, no one will think hard of us if we seek a reprieve from the painful process of being hanged and quartered until we have proved, with our own eyes, the genuineness of the offered wares, and have been convinced that we no longer have a right to exist.

The rash attempts that have been made to secure uniformity of method in Germany have led to experiences that are certainly not calculated to encourage a continuation in the direction of smaller schools. It would be worse than thoughtless, if, in the face of the present general confusion, we should attempt to change conditions that stand on an historic basis, and that have, perhaps, more real value than all the rest. In the good breeding of the pupils the smaller schools may exhibit better results than the larger ones, but in educational results similar

* In Frankfort the maintenance of a child costs about 1,000 marks (\$238) annually, and in Riehen it was formerly the case, almost without exception, that the pupils were semi-mute and semi-deaf.

proof is as yet wanting. In America the smaller public schools for the deaf strive toward enlargement, and look with envy upon features which are practicable only in larger schools. Among these features I count above all the kindergarten, the classification of the pupils according to their capacity, gymnasiums and plunge-baths, more extensive instruction in manual occupations, drawing and modelling, gardening, and so forth. The largest German schools are already in the happy condition of being able to exhibit various features of this kind, and to abandon the advantages and conveniences resulting therefrom for theoretical phantasms would certainly be more than foolish. The larger schools, against which the cry is now raised, have thus far known how to accomplish their mission in full measure, and they will perform their task in the future yet more successfully if the authorities, as I do not doubt will be the case, will acknowledge the necessity of preparatory schools, and bring good will toward the establishment of the same. This chance of progress should not be lost, and the method should be reformed according to the following principles :

1. In order to bring the deaf to a mastery of verbal language in the shortest way, and to render the sign-language superfluous, separate instruction in speech and language should be maintained.

2. The instruction in articulation and lip-reading should begin on entering school and continue through the whole course.

3. Instruction in language should be based upon the manual alphabet and writing, and should precede instruction in speech.

4. The manual alphabet should be used as a means of instruction and intercourse during the whole school life, but in the upper classes it should be retired more and more in favor of speech.

5. Pantomime, for purposes of illustration, should be used freely at all stages of the school course.

6. The conventional sign-language, however, should be rigorously excluded, and should neither be employed as a means of instruction nor tolerated as a medium of intercourse.

7. Speech, finger-spelling, and writing are forms of verbal language, and all have the same end in view, viz., to give the deaf-mute command of verbal language, and therefore we have but one name for this method—*The Verbal-Language Method*.

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THE EXAMINATIONS OF THE ENGLISH COLLEGE OF TEACHERS.

AMONG the various causes that have contributed to the marked progress in the education of the deaf in Great Britain within recent years, a prominent place must be given to the "College of Teachers of the Deaf and Dumb," which was organized fifteen years ago at the suggestion of Dr. Richard Elliott, of Margate, and the late Rev. Dr. William Stainer, of London. These gentlemen felt that one of the greatest needs for the success of the work in that country was properly qualified teachers, and they thought that the best way to secure such teachers would be to establish an organization which should offer examinations to test the fitness of applicants and grant certificates to persons who passed the examinations satisfactorily. Such persons were to constitute the membership of the College. The College was to be merely an examining, not a teaching body. The suggestion made by Dr. Elliott and Dr. Stainer was favorably received by the leading members of the profession in Great Britain, and a committee was appointed to carry it into execution. The

first examinations were held in 1885. At that time the certificate was given not only to those who passed the prescribed examination, but also to all teachers who produced evidence satisfactory to the board of examiners that they had taught the deaf successfully for a period of not less than ten years. Since then the certificate has been given, as a rule, only to candidates who passed the examinations, though a few instructors of unquestioned qualifications—for instance, Mr. J. A. Tillinghast, who came to the headmastership of the Belfast Institution with a diploma from the Normal Department of Gallaudet College and with several years' experience as teacher and superintendent—have been elected members of the College *honoris causa*. In addition to conducting yearly examinations and granting certificates the College has published Mr. Arnold's "Teacher's Manual." The services rendered by Dr. Elliott and Dr. Stainer in founding the College were recognized in 1891 by the presentation to them of portraits of themselves.

The standard of special preparation for the instruction of the deaf aimed at by the College is reasonably high, as may be seen from the examination papers used last July, which are printed below. That the tests are rigidly applied may be inferred from the fact that of eighteen candidates in 1898 only eleven passed, and of twenty-one candidates in 1899 only fifteen passed. We should be glad to see some more definite requirements in the way of general qualifications, as, for instance, graduation from a university, college, normal school, or other educational establishment of high order, as a preliminary to examination in the specialty of instructing the deaf; the only requirements of this kind are testimonials of good moral character, of educational ability, and of skill in teaching. Evidently, however, general qualifications are not disregarded, for it is stated that a candidate without a good knowledge of English and a fair general education, apart from acquaint-

ance with the specific subjects, could not pass. In the way of special preparation, candidates, in addition to passing the prescribed examinations, are required to have taught the deaf for a period of not less than two years under a teacher holding a certificate recognized by the College. No candidate is admitted to examination who is less than twenty-one years of age.

The following books are recommended for study by those who intend to take the examinations of the College :

The articles referring to the education of the deaf in the encyclopedias.

"The Education of Deaf-Mutes, Teachers' Manual," vols. i and ii, by the late Rev. T. Arnold.

"Deaf-Mutism," by Dr. A. Hartmann; Baillière & Co., Strand, London.

"Deaf-Mutism," by Dr. Kerr Love and W. H. Addison; Glasgow, James MacLehose & Son.

Special courses of instruction for the deaf.

"The Organs of Speech," by Von Meyer; Kegan, Paul & Co., Paternoster Square, London.

"The Movable Atlas, Tongue and Throat;" Baillière & Co., Strand, London.

"Teachers' Handbook of Psychology," by James Sully; Longmans, Paternoster Row, London.

"Principles and Practice of School Hygiene," by Dr. Carpenter; Joseph Hughes, Ludgate Hill, London.

"Lectures on Teaching," by J. G. Fitch; Cambridge University Press.

"School Management," by Joseph Landon; Kegan, Paul & Co., Paternoster Square, London.

The examination is upon the following subjects : *

- a. The history of the education of the deaf and dumb.
- b. The principles of education generally.
- c. The method of teaching elementary language to the deaf.
- d. The method of teaching advanced language to the deaf.

* "Subjects *a* to *e* are compulsory for all candidates. All of the subjects may be taken by a candidate, and success in them will be recorded on the certificate, but marks will be given only for seven. In regard to subject *e*, the candidate may give, at his or her option, a lesson by either the Oral, Combined, or Manual method of teaching. If the Oral or Combined method be selected, then subjects *f* and *g* will be obligatory, and marks awarded for the papers thereon. But if the Manual method be chosen for the lesson, the subjects *h* and *i* will be taken in lieu of the above, and marks awarded in similar proportion."

- e. The practical instruction of a class (*with blackboard illustrations*), and *viva voce* examination by examiners.
- f. The mechanism of speech with the anatomy and physiology of the organs.
- g. The method of teaching articulation.
- h. The making and understanding of signs.
- i. The ability to read and use finger-spelling with facility.

By permission of the College the questions used in the last examination, held at Derby in July, 1899, are here printed :

A.

Please put your *nom de plume* on top of each page.*

(1) Write a short account of the earliest recorded instances we have of the education of the deaf and dumb; also give the names of some of those who devoted themselves to the work, and state what success they are said to have achieved.

(2) Name some of the difficulties and obstacles the early teachers had to contend against, chiefly with regard to the adverse opinions of scholars and divines. Give instances.

(3) Write out briefly what you know of the labors of the first great public teacher of the deaf and dumb, the Abbé de l'Épée; also of his German opponent, Heinicke.

(4) Trace the gradual development of deaf-mute instruction in Britain from the time of Thomas Braidwood, who opened a school in Edinburgh in 1790, naming the principal teachers and institutions down to the present time, especially noting the great and rapid increase in the number of children, and also of teachers, during the past fifteen years.

(5) State some of the important results to the cause from the labors of the Royal Commission.

B.

(1) Define as precisely as you can each of the following terms, and show how they are related: Education, Instruction, Discipline, Training, Development.

(2) What qualities can written examinations test, and what do they fail to test?

(3) Distinguish between rational and verbal memory, and illustrate by examples Fitch's rule for deciding what should be learned by heart and what should not.

(4) How should hasty temper and unpunctuality, or laziness and sulking, be punished?

(5) What sort of (written) sketch should appear on the blackboard at the end of an object-lesson on *one* of these subjects: (a) Iron; (b) Coal; (c) The Ocean; and what is the best use to make of such a sketch when it is written?

* This request is repeated at the head of each series of questions.

C.

(1) State what degree of importance you attach to language as a means of mental development, and give your reasons.

(2) When and how do you teach the proper use of the definite article *the*? Give short sentences showing its varied use and meaning; and show, in your reply, how best to make a child discriminate in using *a* and *the*.

(3) What difficulty have your pupils in distinguishing between *ask* and *tell*, *touch* and *feel*, *lend* and *borrow*, *speak*, *tell*, and *say*? Give typical sentences, such as you think will best illustrate their use and modification.

(4) In teaching the present participle, what rule or method do you adopt to prevent your pupils from forming such sentences as "I am knowing you," "I am seeing it," or "I am loving my mother"? What distinction do you draw between such sentences as "I saw him climbing a ladder," and "I saw him climb a ladder"?

(5) Take "the potato" as the subject of a lesson for a class at the end of the third year. Give the lesson *in extenso* and point out those forms of expression to which you would draw the special attention of the class, stating your reasons.

D.

(1) Define what you understand by the term "advanced language" as applicable to deaf and dumb children; state at what stage of instruction you think it should commence, and the point of progress you consider attainable by a pupil of fair intellectual capacity in the period of education contemplated by the Act (Blind and Deaf Children) of 1893. (14)

(2) Independent of the method of instruction followed, what do you consider to be the subject of greatest importance in the education of the deaf and dumb? Why is this so? (6)

(3) As regards the *comprehension* and *expression* of language-forms, are these concurrent and identical processes or what? Discuss the point and state the considerations arising in your mind therefrom. (13)

(4) Why is the acquisition of language, and the power to use it readily and spontaneously, so much more difficult for a deaf and dumb child than a normal hearing one? What course would you adopt in order to try to minimise the disadvantages under which the former labors? (11)

(5) Select such phrases in the following story, or expressions of an idiomatic character, as would appear to you, when relating the story, to demand elucidation. Explain your mode of affording such elucidation and what would give you the assurance of success.

(From "Talks and Stories" for the use of the deaf, by W. G. Jenkins.)

The Cure of a Drunkard.

Once there was a man who used to drink liquor and get drunk every few days. His wife often begged him to stop drinking, and he promised to do so. He always said, "I will, I will."

One day he was coming home drunk. He staggered along and accidentally fell into a well. He grabbed hold of the chain that drew up the bucket and shouted as loudly as he could for help.

His wife heard him and ran to the well. She looked down into the well and there she saw her husband clinging to the chain. He called to her to pull him up. She took hold of the handle and drew him up almost to the top of the well. Then she purposely let go of the handle, and the man dropped back into the well. He called to her again and she answered, "I will, I will." Then she pulled him again to the top of the well, and again she let him drop into the water. The man begged his wife to pull him out, because he was all wet and cold. She said, "I will, I will."

The man knew that she was punishing him for always promising to stop drinking liquor. He promised his wife to sign the pledge that day if she would pull him out. She finally pulled him out. He was angry at first, but he could not break his promise. So he signed the pledge and never drank liquor again. He found good work and attended to his business every day. His wife helped him as much as she could. They both worked hard and saved their money and in a little while they built a house. They had a happy home. The man used to say that his wife cured him of drinking liquor. He did not care if the people did laugh.

F.

- (1) Describe briefly the action of the interior muscles of the larynx.
- (2) Indicate by a sketch the form and position of the epiglottis, and state its principal function.
- (3) Describe the position and function of the genio-hyo-glossus muscle.
- (4) Name the principal nerves and arteries of the larynx.
- (5) How is voice produced, of what modifications is it capable, and what constitutes speech?

G.

- (1) State the aims you would have in view in giving instruction in the elementary sounds of articulation, and say how long such instruction should be continued.
- (2) State whether any exercises should precede those on articulation, and, if so, describe them, and the purposes for which they are given.
- (3) Select three of the sounds which present the greatest difficulty of acquirement, and give your *modus operandi* of each of them.
- (4) State briefly what you know, by reading or experience, of the points of difference in the existing courses of articulation in use in schools for the deaf; what course you are yourself using, and what you think to be its special advantages.
- (5) Give an outline of the chief general difficulties met with in teaching articulation, and state how they may be successfully overcome.

Nearly 300 teachers have been examined by the Col-

lege during the fourteen years of its existence. The present list of enrolled members numbers 247. It includes nearly all the headmasters and other prominent instructors of the deaf in Great Britain, as well as many of the younger teachers. In the appointment of new teachers and in the promotion to higher positions, the governing bodies of schools generally recognize the value of the College certificate by giving preference to applicants who have received it over those who have not.

Would a similar scheme of examinations be desirable for American teachers of the deaf? We think that it would. It is, doubtless, true that the standard of qualifications for teachers in this country is generally higher than it was in Great Britain fourteen years ago, and that consequently the need for such a course here is not as great as it was there; but no one will claim that all our teachers are as well qualified as they ought to be; too often persons receive appointments, even to high positions, who, however excellent their qualifications in other respects, have had no previous training or experience in the specialty of teaching the deaf. The establishment of examinations and the granting of certificates under wise provisions, similar to those of our English brethren, and with the additional requirement, as a preliminary to the examination, of a diploma or certificate from some teaching establishment of a high order—preferably a university, college, or normal school, but, perhaps, also a high school or academy—would have the effect to raise the standard of our work and to secure better instruction for the deaf children of America.

E. A. F.

A COMPARISON OF DEAF AND HEARING CHILDREN IN THEIR NINTH YEAR.*—II.

3. *Tests in Manual Dexterity.*

THE tests in manual dexterity were sufficiently simple to admit of exact marking.

Test I consisted in stringing a set of kindergarten beads in a prescribed order of the six colors. The beads were placed helter-skelter in a small tin box, from which each was taken separately. The average time occupied by the deaf children for this test was 3.4 minutes; that of the hearing, 7.1 minute.

The same test extended to the seven selected deaf boys twelve years of age, showed the average time occupied, 2.2 minutes. Seven hearing boys, selected as most promising by their teacher, from a sixth-grade school-room, occupied an average time of 2.1 minute.

Test II consisted in piling a set of fifty-five dominoes in five columns, eleven in each, and returning them in order to the box. The average time occupied by the deaf was 4.3 minutes; by the hearing, 6.9 minutes.

The test extended to the twelve-year-olds gave an average of 3.4 minutes to the deaf and the same to the hearing.

It will be seen that, though both deaf and hearing have gained dexterity in four years of school life, the hearing have gained far more. This is somewhat surprising, since the deaf use their fingers almost constantly about their school work; at the same time, all of the hearing boys had actually handled dominoes in games, while most of the deaf had done so very rarely, if at all.

Test III consisted in sorting in order of size a set of very small buttons, very nearly the same in diameter, no

* Concluded from the *Annals* for November, 1899, page 412.

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two being precisely the same. The average time occupied by the deaf for this test was 25 seconds, and by the hearing 30 seconds; moreover, three hearing children out of ten failed to place the buttons in the proper order; the deaf made no mistake as to size. This test was not given to the older children.

In addition, the boys twelve years of age were required to turn the pages of a blank book and write their own initials upon each page; the average time occupied by the deaf was 44.2 seconds; by the hearing, 46.4 seconds.

The fourth test for the older boys was sewing ten buttons on a strip of cloth, two stitches to a button. The average time occupied by the deaf was 5.3 minutes; by the hearing, 7.3 minutes.

Lest it be imagined that the chances here would be in favor of institution-bred children, I may state that not one of the deaf boys chosen had ever sewed on a button before, while three of the hearing boys claimed to have done a large share of their family sewing.

The tests in manual dexterity were, all in all, and separately, in favor of the deaf. The little deaf children were ahead of the little hearing children in every instance in point of rapidity and excelled them no less in point of accuracy.

In the tests with the twelve-year-old children, the deaf were still generally ahead (actually so in every instance but one), but the discrepancy was not nearly so marked as with the younger children. Whereas the hearing boys of twelve were quicker than those of eight, they were also more accurate; the deaf boys of twelve were also quicker than the younger ones, but could hardly be more accurate. In fact, no human efforts can excel the careful and painstaking attention to detail of these little untaught deaf children. Their constant fidelity to the one means of information open to them is pathetic in its patient unchildishness. I should not say that they lose this

attentiveness as they grow older, but gain rather in concentration than observation.

4. *Tests in Observation and Memory.*

Finally I gave tests in observation and memory.

The results showed that the trial was too simple to show the comparative ability of deaf and hearing children, since the memory of the former was not strained to the breaking point.

Test I consisted in placing ten small objects upon a table, leading each child past separately, telling him to note all the objects, then sending him to another room to write the names of all the objects he remembered.

The average number of objects noted and remembered by the deaf was ten (10); that is, each child remembered every object. The average number written by the hearing was five and nine-tenths (5.9).

With a second trial, the deaf children reached an average of 9.99; the hearing, an average of 6.6.

The second exercise was more difficult, in that the ten objects were hung on a bangle-board, exposed about a quarter of a minute to the whole school, then covered.

(I gave the same test to two oral deaf classes—the first-year and the second-year—both containing sixteen children of the required ages. The average number of words handed in was eight and six-tenths. It is not to be understood that the lower average attained by the oral pupils reflects either upon their natural intellect or upon the methods employed in their instruction; but, no doubt, their effort, both at home and at school, to read the lips of their hearing associates has subtracted just so much from their observation of things about them. At any rate, they are not to be regarded as *normal deaf children*.)

Test II consisted of three short and arbitrary collections of letters presented to the children, then removed, and called for the next day.

The average attained by the deaf was once more ten (10); that by the hearing, four and two-tenths (4.2).

Of course, all words learned by the deaf are, in fact, arbitrary collections of letters, since they never learn the laws by which sounds are combined into speech and represented in spelling. But this arbitrary letter memory could hardly be extensively developed during the first year of school life; hence the peculiar significance of these memory tests.

The twelve-year-old boys had ten words uncovered before them, were allowed to study them one minute, then the words were erased and reproduced.

This exercise was presented to a fifth-year deaf class and a fifth-year hearing class, also a sixth-year hearing class. This gave ten deaf children and seventy-eight hearing children of the proper age, viz., twelve years of age.

The words were: "rhinosceros," "schoolhouse," "running," "anxious," "miserable," "angel," "happy," "fog," "bridge," "snow-bank." The average written by the deaf was ten (10); by the hearing, eight and seven-tenths (8.7). Not quite 50 per cent. of the hearing obtained ten.

Not one of these tests had ever been tried before with either deaf or hearing classes.

In the tests in observation and memory—both of objects and of words—both with eight-year-old and twelve-year-old children, but one result is apparent: the unquestionable superiority of the deaf. The excellent spelling of the deaf as compared with that of the hearing is also significant. We now perceive in what direction the education of the deaf has been going on while hearing boys are learning to run, throw, jump, and climb. The former have been learning to work in harness, while the latter have been learning independence of the whole adult world.

5. *School Work of the First Year.*

In a school for the deaf, about 350 words are used in the first year ; not merely *learned*, but actually *used* as a child uses spoken words—that is, read, spelled, and written in sentences.

Grammatical symbols are introduced the latter part of the term for each part of speech, and a common exercise is to give the pupil a sentence-form to be filled out with appropriate words. These grammatical categories are real bonds of association in the mind of the deaf child—probably the only child that ever learns a language on grammatical principles.

When I asked a fifth-year child for her vocabulary, the first sheets handed in bore the words I taught her four years ago, in groups of transitive verbs, intransitive verbs, prepositions, etc.

I found it impossible to compare with the work just outlined the work done in the first year of a hearing class.

The hearing child, having a language already at command, can turn his attention to the matter of thought rather than its vehicle. His first year is devoted to learning to read rather than learning to write.

The number of words which hearing children, five and six years of age, learn to know by sight, the first year, varies exceedingly with the teacher. No teacher of whom I made inquiries had previously kept any account. One primary teacher thought that her pupils learned about a thousand ; another ascertained, by actual count, that hers had learned two hundred and thirty (230).

Sentence-forms and meanings of words are of course already learned by hearing children before school is entered. It seems as though the mere learning to read would be a trifling task compared with the work accomplished in the deaf child's first year ; but it is to be considered that the latter is two or three years older, and

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that his interest and effort are concentrated upon his school work in a manner unparalleled in a public school, where a child has a thousand distractions of paramount importance with his lesson.

As is to be expected, the deaf form a characteristic handwriting much younger than the hearing, though the latter enter school two years earlier.

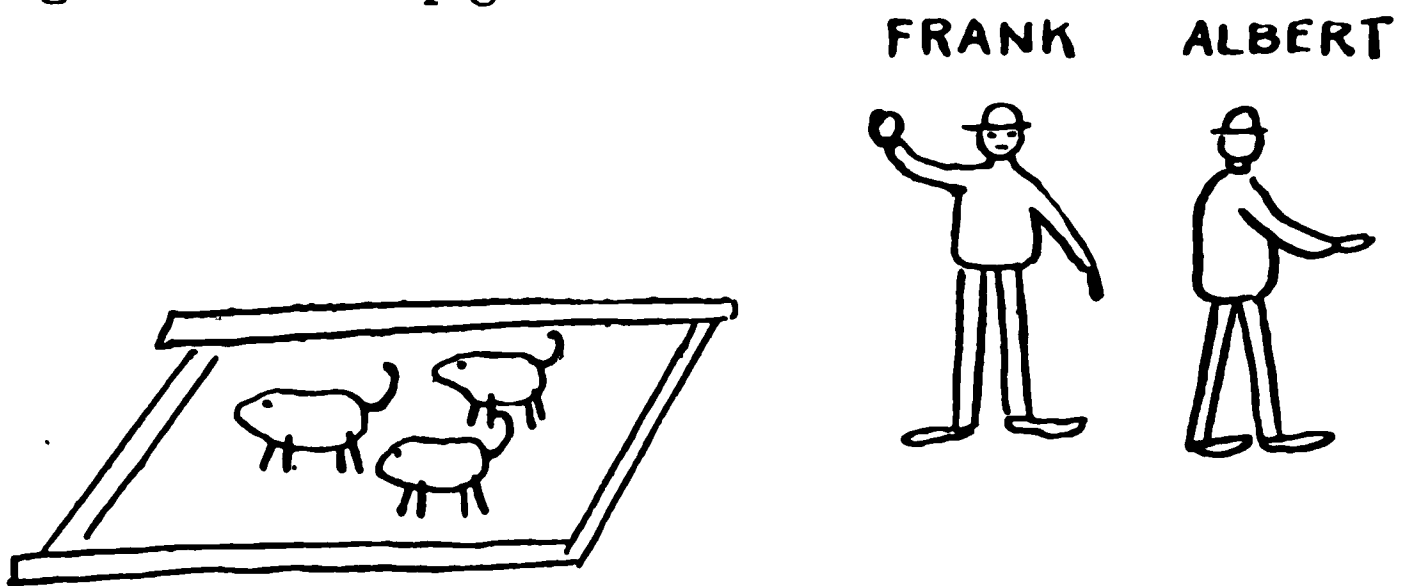
The first-year deaf children "weave," "prick," etc., not only with precision and neatness, but also with taste and fancy, far beyond what I have witnessed with the hearing, but I made no actual comparisons.

Perhaps I should mention one "knack" which the deaf easily acquire, although it is as much a matter of acquirement with them as with others; this is illustrative drawing.

The use made of drawing by the teacher in conveying ideas suggests to the child a means of making himself understood, and he comes to use the art something after the fashion of savage picture-writing.

Features important to the matter in hand are exaggerated to enhance their effect.

The following is a fac-simile of a drawing presented to me one morning by a little boy who was accused of throwing stones at the pigs:



He is the boy whose feet are turned away from the pigpen, in the path of righteousness, toward the school; his companion, the real criminal, according to this record, had his feet resolutely set toward evil and his arm raised

and his fist clenched to hurl a stone, while the fingers of the artist, it will be observed, were so held that they could not possibly enclose a stone. (Albert drew the picture. Frank maintained that the names were misplaced.)

In order to determine how far a deaf child's vocabulary falls short of the normal standard, I asked two twelve-year-old children—a girl and a boy—to write out for me all the words they knew. The little girl forthwith sat down and wrote eight hundred words without stopping, excepting to eat. The words are quite detached, with no discernible connecting thread. She then rose and handed me the paper, saying: "That is all I ever knew." Subsequent arguments induced her to add to her vocabulary 240 words more.

The boy's list reached 965.

Of course, such a list as this is not complete; it simply shows the words floating on the surface of memory; but it is probably far more nearly exhaustive than a hearing child's list would be, since constant school-room practice keeps the linguistic attainments of the deaf always available.

Up to the present writing I have not been able to prevail upon any hearing child to attempt to "write all he knows."

The school work of the first year in a school for the deaf begins at the very foundation of knowledge, so far beneath the ordinary first-year school work that the deaf child really never attains what the hearing child starts with.

The learner is hampered by lack of communication, yet by interest in his work he really learns to read, write, and spell more words than the ordinary eight-year-old child two or three years in school can read, write, and spell. Beyond this acquirement the first-year work hardly reaches, for language drill constitutes nearly all the school work of the first years.

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DEAF MEN IN COLLEGES FOR HEARING MEN.

ON several occasions, especially in the *Annals* for January, 1896, and in an address before the National Association of the Deaf, held at Philadelphia in the following summer, the writer has touched upon this subject.

The positions assumed on all those occasions were the same; namely, (1) that any deaf man possessing a sufficiency of brains, money, and hardihood of spirit—by which is meant a measure of indifference to the fact that he would occupy a peculiar position and would sometimes stand in the light of others—might, with special assistance, pass through any college for hearing men and obtain its degrees; (2) that for this purpose it would make no essential difference whether or not the deaf man knew or used any means of communication other than writing; and (3) that, while he would gain culture and a degree, he would also lose the chiefest pleasures and many indirect but most precious advantages of an ordinary college career.

The writer believed these positions correct in theory, and they were sustained by the fact that he was personally acquainted with deaf men who had successfully pursued courses of study in colleges for the hearing, some of whom used neither speech, nor the manual alphabet, nor lip-reading, while others made more or less use of one or of all of these means of communication.

For a number of years oral enthusiasts have claimed that deaf students taught by their method could, by virtue of speech and lip-reading, study in colleges for the hearing with but little handicap—almost as homogeneous members of the college community. This view is quite opposed to that of the writer, which holds that, even when given every advantage of ability, money, and courage, the totally deaf man in a college for hearing men necessarily remains unique; and that, lacking either one of these

advantages, his uniqueness becomes emphasized to the point of cruelty.

A pure-oral graduate has now come forward with his experience, and it throws a great deal of light upon the question. This is Mr. A. Lincoln Fechheimer, a former pupil of the Clarke School. His experiences are narrated in a frank and interesting paper read by himself at the meeting of oral teachers in Northampton last summer. After leaving the Clarke School he prepared for college in various secondary schools for hearing youth, and then entered Columbia University, pursued the architectural course, and graduated with the degree of Bachelor of Science.

His paper shows that Mr. Fechheimer is a young man possessing ability, money, and sufficient, though perfectly modest, self-confidence. The plan of education pursued by him was therefore a wise one. It is almost exactly the plan recommended by the writer to such students as he is in the article first mentioned above.

But does Mr. Fechheimer's experience bear out the claims of pure oralists in other respects? Let us see. Was he a homogeneous member of the University? Far from it. Nothing in the paper is more evident than that he was *sui generis*—a special case, to be treated by special means among a thousand who were treated by ordinary means. The head professor of the course took special charge and oversight of him, laying out and inspecting his work, reading aloud his exercises to the class, writing out for him problems submitted orally to the rest of the class, selecting persons to assist him as hereafter described—all which functions, and others filled by this professor in this case, are functions that do not belong to a professor dealing with normal students.

Was lip-reading necessary or essential to the progress of this young man through this course? No, indeed. He realized at the start that it would not be. His plan

was to employ a stenographer to be his *vade-mecum*, to be forever at his side and act as ears and recorder for him. To this the professors might object; therefore the head professor picked out students to serve, for pay, as "coaches" and hearers for him. These took down whatever was said, submitted their versions to the proper professors, who, on finding them correct, handed them to the young man. He was so bright that he needed little or no "coaching," but these *hearers* were a necessity, and he had from one to four constantly serving him, except during the last few months, when no lectures were given. Moreover, the professor who "wanted to make sure that he understood correctly," *wrote* to him upon the blackboard.

Without doubt, lip-reading was often a convenience to him, within its limitations. The manual alphabet, if mastered by these numerous assistants—a matter of a few hours' practice—would have given him another means of personal intercourse often less conspicuous than lip-reading, much wider in range, and infinitely more certain, safe, and sure. With both means he would have been doubly able to receive intelligence up to a certain point, but neither nor both could be at all adequate to the position in which he was placed; for that the one thing needful was ears to hear in place of his own, which heard not.

It is difficult to imagine a case that presents more clearly than this young man's the uniqueness of the position occupied by a deaf man in a college for hearing men. Helen Keller, blind and deaf in a college for seeing and hearing women, would indeed be more dependent upon special assistance than this young man was, but the fact that such assistance would be indispensable is not so very much more patent in her case than in his.

These experiences, therefore, go far to defeat the very object for which they are brought forward, namely, to

impel totally deaf students, trained to understand speech by vision, to enter colleges for hearing students, on the ground in part that such training will contribute largely to their progress and success therein. This young man had had the very best of such training, yet he was obliged to avail himself of special assistance in like manner as if he had never seen a school for the deaf. This young man deserves all praise; he did well and finely, but other deaf men who make no pretensions to lip-reading have done the same, and that without the ample and ideal assistance that this young man happily could and did command and enjoy.

This latest case markedly enforces the truth that to impel totally deaf men to enter colleges for hearing men, unless they are fortified by unusual energy, unusual ability, considerable money, and sufficient self-confidence, or to represent to them that lip-reading will render their success and progress in colleges for the hearing much more easy and practicable, is to launch them amid difficulties, unhappiness, and probable failure, and is therefore to assume a grave responsibility towards the student, the parent, and the state.

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NOTES ON MANUAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.—I.

IN beginning these occasional contributions to the *Annals*, I think it well to make a plain statement in regard to my position on the industrial question, my reason for attaching so much weight to it, and my understanding of the two terms most generally employed—manual training and industrial education or training. I am as favorable to industrial training as to manual training, each in its

proper place ; by which I mean that manual training, being the more general, should precede industrial training, the more particular. But I shall defer a more definite expression of opinion on this point to some future time.

My reason for placing so much stress on all matters of an industrial nature is the important bearing they are now considered to have not only on the future welfare of both deaf and hearing persons, but on their education as well. Changes in industrial conditions and the lack of a practical tendency in education must be largely looked to for an explanation of the utilitarian views that are, as never before, now permeating our national life. The great city has taken the place of the town, and vast manufacturing establishments with machinery have made extensive inroads on hand labor. We buy very many things now that were formerly made at home or in the shop. So the use of the hand has been reduced almost to a minimum and the cramming of the head increased to a maximum at the expense of the power to think and act, which are at the very foundation of the making of a useful man or woman. It has been well said that "strength is organic rather than cumulative"—that is, a living, active power, not an accumulation of more or less dead knowledge. For these and other reasons manual training schools, trade schools, and technical schools are becoming the order of the day. Of course, this does not refer to the schools for the deaf so much as to those for the hearing, since the former have generally made the preparation of their pupils for the practical duties of life one of their chief concerns. Still there is room for improvement.

There has been of late no little complaint on the part of teachers and advocates of manual training that, as a rule, the term "manual training" is misused. "The commonly held idea," says a recent writer, "of a manual training school is that it is an institution where the public pays for the apprenticeship of a young man or a young woman,

a purely private matter, paid for by public money. I do not blame a public, holding such an idea, for refusing to support largely such a school." The definition of manual training as adopted at the last meeting of the American Manual Training Association is as follows :

Manual training is any form of constructive work that serves to develop the powers of the pupil through spontaneous and intelligent self-activity.

The power of observation is developed through exacting demands upon the senses ; the reason by constant necessity for thought before action, and the will by the formation of habits of patient, careful application.

In general, put into practical application, this means, for the kindergarten, paper pasting, stick laying, cardboard construction, modelling, weaving, drawing, etc.; for the primary grades, mostly knife work and drawing for boys, and sewing for girls ; for the grammar grades, bench work in wood and simple mechanical drawing for boys, and domestic science for girls ; for the high school, bench and machine work in wood and metal, mechanical, architectural, and free-hand drawing, carving, wrought-iron work in the shop, etc., for boys, and domestic arts, cooking, housekeeping, etc., for girls. It is hardly necessary for me to remark that this work is highly educational and conducive to a most thorough training of hand, eye, and muscles.

In his " Talks to Teachers on Psychology," in the *Atlantic Monthly* for March, 1899, Professor William James has some good words for manual training schools. He says :

The most colossal improvement which recent years have seen in secondary education lies in the introduction of manual training schools ; not because they will give us a people more handy and practical for domestic life and better skilled in trades, but because they will give us citizens with an entirely different intellectual fibre. Laboratory and shop work engender a habit of observation, a knowledge of the difference between accuracy and vagueness, and an insight into nature's complexity and into the inadequacy of all abstract verbal accounts of real phenomena, which once wrought into the mind remain there as lifelong possessions. They confer precision ; because if you are *doing* a thing, you must do it definitely right or definitely wrong. They give honesty ; for

when you express yourself by making things, and not by using words, it becomes impossible to dissimulate your vagueness or ignorance by ambiguity. They beget a habit of self-reliance; they keep the interest and attention always cheerfully engaged, and reduce the teacher's disciplinary functions to a minimum.

In order to show the efficiency of manual training, let me quote almost the exact words in which the principal of a manual training school compared his boys with those serving apprenticeships in shops. He declared that eighth-grade boys receiving six hours' weekly instruction for six months demonstrated that they could do better and more intelligent work than young men who had been several years in the shops.

I had intended to speak of industrial training or trade teaching, but so much space has already been taken that this subject is postponed to the next issue.

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THE MIND OF AN UNEDUCATED DEAF CHILD.*

Who that cares to know the history of man, and how this mysterious being behaves under varying experiences, has not dwelt on the life of a deaf child; has not inquired about the workings of its mind? Those who believe that the mind of a child, deaf from birth, remains absolutely isolated, and is powerless to form an idea until sent to school, may be broad-minded enough to change their opinion after reading my story of the workings of a little deaf girl's mind before it had ever been schooled and disciplined.

In a neat, but modest, kitchen sat a blue-eyed, fair-haired girl of about two years, gazing with a pensive face

* The writer of this article was born deaf; the incidents narrated are the recollections of her own childhood.—E. A. F.

upon the weeping mother who had just received a telegram announcing the sudden death of the grandfather. When the mother's eyes, dimmed with tears, fell upon the inquiring child she made some gestures attempting to tell the sad news, and to say that she would attend the funeral. The child got the idea that the mother would go away, and said by natural signs, in an entreating manner : "Take me along with you." Her request was granted.

Little Lucy never realized her misfortune until one day she tried to speak loudly on the top of a shed, in imitation of a preacher whom she had seen once or twice preaching. Her voice was so loud and piercing that it could be heard a long distance, but yet no words were pronounced. The shadow of a figure behind her attracted her attention, and turning around she saw her mother hurrying into the house with her face covered with her apron. Lucy, to see what was the matter, came down hastily and followed her mother into her bedroom, where she beheld her deep in agony with her hands clasped in the form of prayer. The innocent child, not knowing that what she had done was the cause of her mother's grief, tried to console her. How could the mother tell her? After a painful struggle she was forced to make the awful signs, "You are deaf and dumb." Did not this utterly crush Lucy? To a child, the full extent of such a calamity could not be at once apparent.

Owing to the inability of those surrounding to understand her feelings, which she tried in vain to express, Lucy turned to the lower species of animated nature, and often rejoiced with the lambs that bleat on the uplands or the cattle that reposed in the valley, or even with the living plants beside them that drink the bright sun and the balmy air. How she loved to seek the recesses of the woods where the wild strawberries were thickest, or where the white violets and the rarest flowers were hid! How she climbed along the rocky sides of the glen, to

seek the best spot for a rustic meal and find in some nook mossy stones and banks of flowers for seats and tables. Just think of the wholly untaught deaf child who gazed wonderingly at the summer lightning flashing behind the chain of hills, or watched with many playful fancies the long gorgeous conflagration of the summer sunset. The expressions of the moon were always a thing of terror to her.

I will now return to her associations with the living creatures of nature. She loved and treated them tenderly all alike. She would observe the little black-eyed squirrel, without disturbing him, while he cracked his nuts. She would visit the haunts of the moor hen, without causing any consternation to her for her little black velvet progeny. Her chief companions were Rover, a large black dog; Pussy, a white and yellow cat; and Dolly, a bay horse with white spots. Perhaps you will smile at the thought of her ceaseless attempt to teach them a language, by which they could understand her. But she was rewarded by their fidelity to her, of which quality Pussy ungenerously manifested the least.

One afternoon, as merry Lucy was trotting along the road after a fluttering butterfly, she met a group of boys, who were foolish enough to look down with disdain upon her. The thoughtless boys began to sneer and jeer at her, and to make ugly faces and gestures, which, like poisoned arrows, quivered long and rankled painfully in poor, sensitive Lucy's heart.

Before I proceed to describe how far these mere doings of folly galled her, I will give you an idea of her circumstances.

Her father was a well-to-do farmer. The mother, though she had been bending under the weight of cares and sufferings, was a woman of rare qualities, and she might have given more attention to Lucy if it had not been for her large family, to which she had to attend.

At odd times she would amuse her with picture-books and teach her, with ceaseless patience, to spell the finger-alphabet, and to write in the form of print, and to call persons by the first letter of their first names.

She would encourage her to go into the society of children of her own age, and would go so far as to send her with older sisters and brothers to the country school-house, where she once displayed on her slate a wonderful memory of the multiplication table. But yet Lucy felt a lack of glowing affection from her mother and all surrounding her, except her grandmother, who always stretched out her warm hands towards the child whenever she came to her. But nature was cruel enough to take from her the dearest soul that sympathized with her.

I now come to where the agitated girl brooded over the sneers and jeers that she had received from the boys, and thought of the angelic smile and tender look of her dear grandmother, and sighed at the thought that she saw her no more. She thought again about her grandmother's burial, and she wondered, in her mind, why she should be put so deep in the ground, and then fancied that she might be put so deep in order to give her the way to another world below. She had no conception of death. She often enjoyed dangerous plays with wild horses and cattle, and she would fearlessly jump from the highest top of a barn to a neighboring tree.

"Yes, I shall see her!" she thought, "there must be a way to meet her." She might have done better to try to amuse herself in the play-house, or divert her thoughts with games and toys; but everything had lost its charm for her. She pushed aside all toys, dolls, and picture-books. She wandered into the woods, and came to a creek, where she sat musing and wondering at the ceaseless running of the water. All at once a light flashed into her mind. She asked herself, "Would it be possible for the stream to carry me along to where my grandmother

is?" She at last decided that it was the right path. No sooner had she come to this decision than she allowed herself to be guided by her strong imagination, and, after a short struggle in the creek, she began to be aware of a complete change. She saw, in the midst of the indistinguishable mass of hurrying clouds, a speck of white, which gradually came to assume a distinguishable shape. It was a Bible of immense size and of white marble with gold print. It was then open in a graceful manner and held in some hand. Above it was the huge disk of the sun, whose splendor gave magnificence to the massive congregation of towering clouds. From this direction came a strange voice which sounded something like "Come in." The horror-stricken child stepped through the clouds and beheld numberless figures, all in white. No resemblance of the desired person was seen; a bitter disappointment overcame the child, and she began to sob. The vision soon vanished; the visitor awoke. The vision had been only the working of the mind of the drowning girl.

Perhaps you wonder how the girl could get such ideas. Well, she had repeatedly looked at the Biblical pictures and thought of them over and over again. As to the words, "Come in," the child was really not totally deaf; she had probably got the faint idea of sounds from the grandmother, who had often tried to speak into her ear.

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THE IMPRESSIONS AND EXPERIENCES OF AN UNEDUCATED DEAF CHILD.

I AM a member of the class termed congenital deaf-mutes, although the plain letter of the term does not answer my case exactly. At four months of age I was taken sick with what kinsfolk diagnosed as malarial fever, and was at its mercy four or five months, at the end of which time it left me as I am to-day.

Inasmuch as I could hear as well as any one else, even whistles at a distance, before the beginning of the attack, my friends thought that an overdose of quinine prescribed by an attending physician had something to do with the loss of hearing. I can hear and distinguish loud sounds of any kind, except the singing of birds, the ringing of small bells, whistles, and the like. Besides, I have learned to speak a good many words where they have not the letters *c*, *g*, *k*, *q*, or *x*, requiring to be so pronounced.

How old I was when I first came to realize my present physical condition I do not remember. But I knew it for a long time before I went to school, whither I went for the first time at the age of nine years and eight months.

I had at home a sign-language adapted especially for me, entirely home-made and very easy to understand.

The following are imaginations and impressions of mine prior to going to school.

There lived up in the sky one person who was to me a great mystery except that he could never die and could never be seen. I had been so taught by friends familiar with my sign-language. They said that we, when up there, would not have to eat, drink, sleep, and be sick and die, and would have wings to fly with. I remember to have once asked if I would go there, upon which they said yes, if I were a good boy. At another time I wanted to know whether we would be allowed to use tobacco in

any form in heaven, to which a friend answered in the affirmative, remarking that one chew thereof would be lasting. This was particularly gratifying to me, as I was at that time learning the nasty habit on the sly.

I was very fond of looking at pictures in books and on cards. Among these were certain illustrations representing the scenes of the world of eternal burning fire, and down there was the ugly-looking man having two horns on his head and a long tail, and in his hands a pitchfork with which to throw bad people into the fire. Being anxious to know all about such strange things, I asked my friends, who were experts in the use of my language, what they were, at the same time pointing at such and such figures in the pictures. They explained that "deep in the ground" was fire burning "day and night;" wicked people would be pitched over into such a furnace to be roasted, with no relieving death to them; swearing, fighting, stealing, drinking, etc., called for the punishments of the "deep;" and the "horns and tail" would pour melting lead into the throats of such people. These pictures were, for the most part, the instruments that formed my idea of the abode of the wicked after death.

As I considered myself far from being a good boy and was frightened by the fear of being so punished, I kneeled down at bed time and prayed God to make me a better boy and to let me be with him all the time, and not to let the "horns and tail" have me. I would go on to say that I hated the latter on account of the cruel doings practised by him, and that I liked God because of his being good and not like the evil one. The signs expressive of such awful objects as were represented in the pictures occupied my mind while praying, but were not accompanied with the movements of my arms as required by signs in conversation; a shake of the head for "no" concerning the devil, and a nod for "yes" concerning God. In other words, I employed in my head such signs as to indicate

exactly what I had already seen and heard. For "God" I knew no word, but, with my index finger, pointed up towards the sky. With this I acquainted my playmates. They were curious to know how I prayed. When I tried to show them, they laughed so heartily as to hurt my feelings and I never prayed for them again. However, one said that I was a good boy and would go to heaven.

Sometimes, in order to affirm positively what I had to say, I would swear by "the sky" by moving my index finger on my breast in the form of the cross and then pointing towards the sky.

While practising the prayer referred to, something within me guided me to do what I thought was right and not to do what was wrong. I had been making some money by selling rags, iron, bones, etc., to a junk house, money-making being my great ambition. I happened to find in a neighbor's yard a piece of old iron heavy enough to realize a sum of ten or fifteen cents; but when I was just about to take it away conscience all of a sudden held me so that I could not do it, telling me that "the sky" was watching me and would let the "horns and tail" pitch me into the fire with his fork if I did it.

As to counting money, I knew only the number of cents up to not more than fifty. I was ignorant as to how much one big silver dollar was worth, but knew it was much more than fifty cents. I always referred to such dollars as big round pieces by using the thumb and index finger in describing half a circle or holding them up in C-shape. The coppers were represented by narrowing down to a smaller circle or an o-shape. For instance, one said his suit of clothes was bought for ten "C's," and I always asked my parents for one or five "o's" for candy or apples.

Some dreams that I remember to have had were pleasant and some others not so. Here is one too graphic to forget: Angels flying together in a group up in the air

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and singing such sweet music as I had never heard before. In another I jumped up into space and stayed there for a moment far from the ground where my playmates were, and carried myself in a curved direction for quite a long distance, at the same time laughing and wondering at the inability of the boys to jump likewise and catch me. The particulars of the others I cannot recall; my dreams were very few and far between.

That the sun was a ball of fire was one of my ideas that proved to be correct. Of the moon I knew nothing, except that it was not so warm as the central body of burning fire and was a very beautiful thing to look at. The stars were the candles lighted by grown angels at sunset and extinguished at sunrise, and rain was produced by little angels pouring water down out of the sky out of watering-pots. The idea of both these, however, I formed from certain pictures found in an almanac. As to snow and wind, I have no recollections. However, I had seen a picture which represented the wind as caused by small-sized bellows in the hands of little angels.

I was quite fond of looking at the sky, and very often did I wonder if it ran down to the earth (the horizon). I had also thought that I would like to take a walk thither and touch it with my own hands and find out what it was like. I had asked a playmate to accompany me, but we never went.

Lightning and thunder I dreaded much more than anything else. I knew the former to be very dangerous, killing any person whom it struck. In the midst of a storm I used to hide under a bed, believing that there I would be safe. I would not hold in my hands anything metallic which might attract a flash.

Not infrequently did I wonder if the black smoke issuing from chimneys on a clear day would go to one place in the atmosphere so as to form such black clouds as we often see.

Sometimes I told lies in order to escape a much-dreaded whipping. Once, while out visiting in the country with a first cousin, I was, against her wishes, trying to chop wood, when the ax accidentally cut one of my toes. I told my cousin that I had struck the toe against a sharp chip, thereby causing the cut. But she asked if the ax did it, whereupon I said "no" with as strong emphasis as I could. Thus the intended punishment was escaped, and I congratulated myself as being clever.

I knew Sunday by people not being at work and going to church morning and evening, and children going to Sunday-school, and also by means of counting the number of days to distinguish the days of rest from the work days. I was accustomed to go to the Sunday-school and now and then to church, where I liked to hear music, which rose and fell in measures loud and low. I do not know whether I ever had any idea of what a church was, but, as far as I can remember, the playmates said that people going to church would go to heaven, and those who did not go would go down to the "deep."

Playing and working were my pleasures. On Sunday I knew it was wrong to work, but whenever my companions were playing I could not resist taking part. One Saturday I made myself a kite (by the way, I was a good hand at carpentering), and that day there was no wind, at which I was disappointed. The following morning was so lovely and there was such a fine breeze for kite-flying that I made up my mind to avail myself of such a good chance, notwithstanding my knowledge that I ought not to do it on this holy day, because I thought that Monday might not have such good wind. Out in the yard I went and soon the kite had gone up, and I was thus enjoying myself a good deal when I saw father coming home from my aunt's house. I thought he was at church. So sudden and unexpected was his coming that I at once cut the string and let the kite fly away for fear of that hated

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whipping by father. And I was very glad when he seemed not to know at all what I had been doing.

I knew when Christmas Day was near by the display in shop-windows, several weeks before, of such things as are appropriate for the gay season; and that it would take place to-morrow by the tin-horn blowing and the exploding of all kinds of fireworks on Christmas Eve. I always thought Santa Claus was a real man. On Christmas Eve I took a slip of paper and a pencil to father to write for me, telling the good old man what I wanted him to give me. Then I sent the letter up the chimney, and ran out in the yard to see if it would go out of the chimney. I did not see it, so I believed it had gone to him, and was consequently in high spirits. On retiring I fastened a stocking to the mantel with innocent confidence that my request would not prove fruitless. I had asked mother to lend me her biggest stockings, but she said no. She made us all hang up our own. I had decided to lie awake until I had seen Santa Claus coming in and going out, but fell into a sound sleep. Having been awakened early in the morning, I ran as fast as my legs could take me to the mantel, where I found my stocking stuffed unusually large, but was sometimes disappointed in not receiving one or two things desired. Once my brother, a cousin, and myself were celebrating the day by firing a gun used by my father in the late civil war. It was now brother's turn to fire, and, in reloading, the iron ram-rod could not be pulled out of the barrel; and, after vain efforts at it, he started to shoot. I ran off from him, expecting that the gun would explode like a cannon fire-cracker and kill him; but the rod simply darted into the ground, and I wondered why the gun did not explode.

I had no love for colored boys. I once threw a pen-knife, with a blade open, at one's legs. This was reported to my mother, and in consequence I was expecting a whipping by my father. With a view of escaping it, I

went to bed about the time he stopped work for the day, but without perfect assurance that he would let me alone. As soon as I heard his step on the porch I closed my eyes in such a manner as would convince him that I had really gone to sleep. But he was not to be fooled. Whipping over, I was asked to return to him the knife which I had hidden somewhere at home. Some time later it was given back to me on condition that I would not do such a thing again.

I knew something about the effects of drinking whiskey. One day I had no appetite for dinner. I knew where some whiskey was kept, and I thought I would take a drink just for fun—particularly to feel the effects of it. I found the stone jug in a closet. Mother's absence in another room furnished me a good chance to get it unseen, and I drank, say, one tablespoonful without having it sweetened, as I was in such a hurry. It burned my throat, which I did not know it would do, and it was so hot I ran to the kitchen safe and ate something to relieve the burning and to destroy the odor on my breath. Presently I had funny feelings in my head. When I noticed mother was watching me, I imagined she knew it, and, thinking that I was becoming tipsy, I asked her to let me go to my aunt's. Being afraid that my aunt would find out what was the matter with me and inform mother, I went to a playmate's instead, hoping he would not notice my condition. I told him that my head ached, but said nothing about the drink, and I wanted to sleep for a while. He kindly took me to his room, and I did not get up until just before nightfall, when I felt much better. Now, I thought no one knew it, until breakfast, when my father said, to my surprise, that if it ever occurred again that old acquaintance, the rod, would visit me.

Those who ate with hats on, especially in the house or shade, I always regarded as being ignorant and bad people.

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I thought that God forbade the throwing on the ground of eatables, except to dogs. Whenever I had anything left in my hands, after I had eaten enough, I would wait or look for a dog to give it to. I was once at an aunt's, where I had to throw a biscuit into a slop bucket for a negro's hog, as I could not find a dog in her neighborhood, and thought this would not offend God.

I had remarked to a playmate that my father's memory was not good to remember what I had asked for and which he said he would do, and that mine was better, as I could not forget anything done and to be done in the course of time. The playmate then said that old people's memories were not good as compared with ours.

One winter night an uncle took me along with him to church. I was under the impression that we were on the way to our own church. Nearing it, I noticed no lights there, to which I called his attention, expecting that he had been misinformed. But he said he was going to another church, where I was surprised to see a man preaching in the pulpit in a manner totally different from that of those who only spoke. The man used a sign-language wholly new to me. The uncle then explained he was a deaf and dumb preacher, and asked if I understood his signs, to which I answered negatively.

Once returning with a playmate from a railroad shop, where I had carried my uncle's dinner, we met on the street a little boy whose sad looks excited my sympathy. I inquired what was the matter. The friend said that the boy's father had driven him from home two days before, and that his mother had in vain begged him not to do so. I felt so sorry, I offered the boy things in my uncle's dinner-basket to eat, when he said he had just dined, and that his mother allowed him to come home and eat during his father's absence. Leaving him, I remarked that his father would go down to "the deep," and his mother was good and kind, and would go to heaven. The friend unhesitatingly agreed with me.

Once I played a trick on an old man who kept a confectionery shop. I thought that one stick of chewing-gum was not enough for a cent. So I asked him for two sticks, at the same time holding one copper behind my back so as not to let him see how much I had. As soon as I got safe hold of the two sticks I pitched the penny on the show-case, and ran away, knowing that he was too old to chase me.

There was but one spelled word I knew before I went to school. It was "ice." I learned it from observing the signs on ice wagons. One day I wanted to make some coppers, so I asked mother for a nickel, with which to buy some ice. I put the ice in a box of sawdust to prevent its melting. I then got a small piece of a plank and, without assistance, painted on it "ICE," and set it up in so conspicuous a place as to attract the neighbors' attention. After several hours had passed, with no sale, I became discouraged and tore the sign down.

Father took a daily morning paper. When he asked me to bring him the last paper, I always depended on the smell of the printing ink on the latest one, which was stronger than that of the older ones. I never failed to bring him the right paper. When mother told me to bring some old ones I always chose those which had lost the smell of the ink.

Once a woman had bought some vegetables from my mother and mother could not change the money. She told me to go with the woman to a store and get the change. Returning from the store, I stopped at another and bought an apple, which I ate before reaching home. Mother counted the money I brought and asked if I had bought and eaten anything. No, said I, and added that the money was all that the lady handed to me at the store. But she did not believe me. I denied, as strongly as I could, and finally told her to look at my mouth. Brother declared he smelled the juice of the apple. She said it

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did not matter, but she only wanted to know if I had done so. At last I confessed, and all laughed.

I learned that I was soon to be sent to school "far away." I protested, in vain, that I did not want to go there. Then I decided to destroy my own life, and imagined that if I were to swallow a large quantity of granulated sugar I would die in a day or two and that it would be too late for a doctor to save my life. This idea came from the fact that my people had often said that to eat too much candy would make me sick and would result in my death. I stole the sugar from the kitchen safe and went to the garden, where I wanted to die. I had eaten only one-fifth of a cupful, but it was much too sweet, and I changed my mind and did not want to die so soon. I was now anxious to go and learn how to read and write. This was about a month before school opened. When ready to start for a two-hundred-mile ride, my mother embraced me and kissed me, with her eyes full of tears. I was in high spirits and laughing, and asked sister what it meant, as it was strange to me, when I thought that she should rather rejoice that I was now off to school. She explained that I was going too far away to return for "many days," and that mother could hardly give me up, but she knew that it would be all for my good. And so it proved.

ARTHUR G. TUCKER,
Buck, West Virginia.

THE LEARNING OF PRINT BY THE DEAF-BLIND.

It is not generally known what a very easy task it is for the deaf-blind to learn a second or third print after having learned the first one. Helen Keller and Linnie Hague-wood learned all prints so long since, and without note being taken of the exact time required, that they are hardly available for exact proof on this, and I therefore tried Katie McGirr (at the Fanwood school) to get the exact time required. She originally learned the "Moon" type, then the English Braille, and then the American Braille. The Moon is distinctively different from all other types, and is specially fitted for those who lose sight late in life. But the two Brailles agree in being "point" systems, the letters in both being formed of dots in two vertical columns, the maximum being three dots high. In New York point there are three columns, each two high, at the maximum number of dots used. Katie's reply to my enquiry of how many hours it took her to learn to read the New York point is: "You ask me how many hours it took me to learn the New York point. I will tell you; it took me altogether an hour and a half, I think, but, of course, as I cannot see the clock, I may be mistaken." As she certainly learned at one sitting, the hour and a half cannot be far out of the way. Katie's teacher confirms the accuracy of her statement, having specially noted it and having made a careful analysis of study hours, etc. Of course, Katie did not learn the point in that hour and a half so that she could read it as freely as either Braille, as practice is required for that, but she learned it so that she could read it.

W. WADE,
Oakmont, Pennsylvania.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF. 1899-1900.
A.—PUBLIC SCHOOLS (NOT INCLUDING DAY-SCHOOLS) IN THE UNITED STATES.

	Name.	Location.	Date of open- ing.	Chief Executive Officer.
1	American School for the Deaf	Hartford, Conn.....	1817	Job Williams, M. A., L. H. D., Principal.
2	New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.....	New York, N. Y. (a)	1818	Enoch Henry Currier, M. A., do.
3	Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.....	1820	A. L. E. Crouter, M. A., LL. D., Sup't.
4	Kentucky Institution for the Education of Deaf-Mutes.....	Danville, Boyle Co., Ky.....	1823	Augustus Rogers, M. A., Sup't.
5	Ohio Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Columbus, Ohio.....	1829	J. W. Jones, M. A., do.
6	Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind.	Staunton, Va.....	1839	William A. Bowles, do.
7	Indiana Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Indianapolis, Ind.....	1844	Richard Otto Johnson, do.
8	Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School.....	Knoxville, Tenn.....	1845	Thomas L. Moses, Principal.
9	North Carolina Institution for Education of the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind.	Raleigh, N. C.....	1845	John E. Ray, M. A., Principal.
10	Illinois Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Jacksonville, Ill.....	1846	Joseph C. Gordon, M. A., Ph. D., Sup't.
11	Georgia School for the Deaf	Cave Spring, Ga	1846	Wesley O. Connor, Principal.
12	South Carolina Inst'n for the Education of the Deaf and the Blind.....	Cedar Spring, S. C.....	1849	Newton F. Walker, Superintendent.
13	Missouri School for the Deaf	Fulton, Callaway Co., Mo.....	1851	Noble B. McKee, M. A., do.
14	Louisiana Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Baton Rouge, La.....	1852	John Jastremaki, M. D., do.
15	Wisconsin School for the Deaf.....	Delavan, Walworth Co., Wis	1852	John W. Swiler, M. A., do.
16	Michigan School for the Deaf.....	Flint, Mich.....	1854	Francis D. Clarke, M. A., C. E., do.
17	Mississippi Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Jackson, Miss.....	1854	J. R. Dobyns, M. A., do.
18	Iowa School for the Deaf.....	Council Bluffs, Iowa.....	1855	Henry W. Rother, Superintendent.
19	Texas Deaf and Dumb Asylum.....	Austin, Texas.....	1857	B. F. McNulty, Superintendent.
20	Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.....	1857	E. M. Gallaudet, Ph. D., LL. D., Pres't.
	A. Kendall School for the Deaf.....do	1857	James Denison, M. A., Principal.
	B. Gallaudet Collegedo.....	1864	E. M. Gallaudet, Ph. D., LL. D., Pres't.
21	Alabama Institute for the Deaf.....	Talladega, Ala.....	1858	Joseph H. Johnson, M. A., Principal.
22	California Institution for the Deaf and the Blind.....	Berkeley, Alameda Co., Cal	1860	Warring Wilkinson, M. A., L. H. D., do.
23	Kansas School for the Deaf	Olathe, Kansas.....	1861	Henry C. Hammond, M. A., Sup't.
24	Le Couteux St. Mary's Inst'n for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes.....	Buffalo, N. Y. (125 Edward St.) (b).....	1861	Sister Mary Anne Burke, Principal.
25	Minnesota School for the Deaf.....	Faribault, Rice Co., Minn	1863	James N. Tate, M. A., Sup't.
26	New York Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes.....	New York, N. Y. (904-922 Lexington Av.) ..	1867	H. F. Mitchell, Superintendent.
27	Clarke School for the Deaf	Northampton, Mass.....	1867	Miss Caroline A. Yale, LL. D., Principal.
28	Arkansas Deaf-Mute Institute.....	Little Rock, Ark.....	1868	Frank B. Yates, Superintendent.
29	Maryland School for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Frederick City, Md	1868	Chas. W. Ely, M. A., Principal.

30	Nebraska Institute for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Omaha, Neb.....	1869	H. E. Dawes, M. A., Superintendent.
31	St. Joseph's Institute for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes	Fordham, N. Y., (c).....	1869	Anna R. Peacock, President.
32	West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and the Blind	Romney, Hampshire Co., W. Va.....	1870	James T. Rucker, Principal.
33	Mystic Oral School for the Deaf.....	Mystic, Conn.....	1870	Miss Ella Scott, Principal.
34	Oregon School for Deaf-Mutes.....	Salem, Oregon.....	1870	Clayton Wentz, M. A., Sup't.
35	Maryland School for the Colored Blind and Deaf.....	Baltimore, Md. (649 W. Saratoga St.) ...	1872	(Frederick D. Morrison, M. A., Sup't. { John F. Bledsoe, M. A., Res't Prin.
36	Colorado School for the Deaf and the Blind.....	Colorado Springs, El Paso Co., Colo.....	1874	W. K. Argo, M. A., Sup't.
37	Central New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.....	Rome, Oneida Co., N. Y.....	1875	Edward Beverly Nelson, M. A., Principal.
38	Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Edgewood Park, Allegheny Co., Pa.....	1876	William N. Burt, M. A., Principal.
39	Western New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.....	Rochester, N. Y. (945 N. St. Paul St.)....	1876	Z. F. Westervelt, LL. D., Sup't & Prin.
40	Maine School for the Deaf.....	Portland, Me. (79-85 Spring St.).....	1876	Miss Elizabeth R. Taylor, Principal.
41	Rhode Island Institute for the Deaf.....	Providence, R. I. (184 East Ave.).....	1876	Miss Laura DeL. Richards, Principal.
42	New England Industrial School for Deaf-Mutes	Beverly, Mass.....	1879	Miss Nellie H. Swett, do.
43	South Dakota School for Deaf-Mutes.....	Sioux Falls, Minnehaha Co., South Dak.....	1880	James Simpson, Superintendent.
44	Pennsylvania Oral School for the Deaf.....	Scranton, Pa.....	1883	Miss Mary B. O. Brown, Principal.
45	New Jersey School for the Deaf.....	Trenton, N. J.....	1883	John P. Walker, M. A., Principal.
46	Utah State School for the Deaf and Dumb	Ogden, Utah.....	1884	Frank W. Metcalf, D. B., Sup't.
47	Northern New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.....	Malone, Franklin Co., N. Y.....	1884	Edward C. Rider, Principal.
48	Florida State School for the Blind and the Deaf	St. Augustine, Fla.....	1885	Rev. Frederick Pasco, Superintendent.
49	New Mexico Asylum for the Deaf and the Dumb.....	Santa Fé, N. M.....	1885	Lars M. Larson, B. A., Superintendent.
50	Washington School for Defective Youth.....	Vancouver, Wash.....	1886	James Watson, Director.
51	Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute for Colored Youth.....	Austin, Tex.....	1887	S. J. Jenkins, Superintendent.
52	Albany Home School for the Oral Instruction of the Deaf	Pine Hills, Albany, N. Y.....	1889	Miss Mary McGuire, Prin. and Sup't.
53	Deaf and Dumb Asylum (of North Dakota).....	Devils Lake, Ramsey Co., North Dak ..	1890	Dwight F. Bangs, Sup't.
54	Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age	Philadelphia, Pa. (d).....	1892	Miss Mary S. Garrett, Principal.
55	Montana School for Deaf and Blind.....	Boulder, Montana ..	1894	E. S. Tillinghast, M. A., Sup't.
56	North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Morganton, Burke Co., N. C.....	1894	E. McKay Goodwin, M. A., Sup't.
57	Oklahoma Institute for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Guthrie, Oklahoma.....	1898	H. C. Beamer, Contractor and Sup't.
57	Public Schools (not including Day-Schools).			
40	Public Day-Schools. (See page 68.)			
15	Denominational and Private Schools. (See page 74.)			
112	Schools in the United States.			

(a) Washington Heights, 163d Street and Broadway. (b) There is a branch school at the corner of Main Street and Forest Ave. (c) This Institution has three branches; one situated at Westchester, another at Fordham (772 East 188th Street), and another at Brooklyn (113 Buffalo Ave.). (d) Belmont Ave., cor. Monument Ave.

64 Schools for the Deaf in the United States, 1899-1900.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1899-1900—Continued.
PUBLIC SCHOOLS (NOT INCLUDING DAY-SCHOOLS) IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Name.	Methods of Instruction.	Industries Taught.	NO. OF PUPILS.				PRESENT NOVEMBER 10, 1899.				PRESENT NUMBER OF INSTRUCTORS.			
			Total.	Male.	Female.	Total Native-born.	Taught Speech.			Total Native-born.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
							A.	B.	C.					
1 American School.....	Combined	Cal., Dns., Dr., Se., Sh.	198	150	102	17	124	8	2,735	24	15	9	3
2 New York Institution.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	490	415	263	57	45	163	19	3,768	44	17	27	6
3 Pennsylvania, do { Oral Dep't.	Oral	Bk., Car., Cl., Dr., Gl., Ir., Kn., Pa., Pl., Pr., Sh., Sl., St., Ta.	496	453	243	205	453	453	2,885	60	15	45	12
4 Kentucky Institution, do { Manual do	Man. Alph.	Car., Ga., Pr., Se., Sh., Ta.	66	47	31	16	1,485	18	10	8	6
5 Ohio Institution.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Bo., Car., Cl., Dr., Em., Pa., Pr., Sh., Ta.	401	352	184	148	102	110	2,096	32	15	17	9
6 Virginia Institution.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Bo., Car., Cl., Dr., Em., Pa., Pr., Sh., Ta.	481	451	263	219	202	189	13	2,846	46	16	30	8
7 Indiana Institution.....	Combined	Bk., Car., Cl., Dr., Gl., Ir., Kn., Pa., Pl., Pr., Sh., Sl., St., Ta.	172	143	63	68	28	16	2,205	16	10	6	5
8 Tennessee School.....	Combined	Bk., Car., Cl., Dr., Gl., Ir., Kn., Pa., Pl., Pr., Sh., Sl., St., Ta.	386	336	165	141	143	104	1,018	33	16	17	11
9 North Carolina Institution.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	290	238	123	95	78	30	8	1,221	14	7	7	3
10 Illinois Institution { Oral Dep't.	Oral	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	106	89	47	42	15	12	2,892	27	12	15	10
11 Georgia School.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	613	540	131	109	240	34	805	65	19	46	5
12 South Carolina Institution.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	505	184	92	92	34	34	407	15	6	9	5
13 Missouri School.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	128	114	63	61	35	36	1,563	38	18	20	10
14 Louisiana School.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	114	97	47	40	35	35	1,136	23	12	11	6
15 Wisconsin School.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	215	176	94	81	89	69	1,532	44	15	29	3
16 Michigan School.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	459	424	235	190	220	132	800	9	5	4	2
17 Mississippi Institution.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	389	373	155	118	70	70	825	23	12	11	7
18 Iowa School.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	312	249	141	117	97	92	443	40	5	35	3
19 Texas Asylum.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	127	107	58	57	34	563	70	14	56	14	3
20 Columbia Inst { Kendall School	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	65	52	29	27	24
21 Alabama Institute.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	164	134	76	68	40	12	507	16	10	6	3
22 California Institution.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	172	152	79	68	40	12	497	16	10	6	3
23 Kansas Institution.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	202	187	109	125	51	35	10	497	16	10	6	3
24 Le Couvent St. Mary's Inst.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	202	187	109	125	51	35	10	497	16	10	6	3
25 Minnesota School.....	Combined	Art., Bk., Cab., Car., Cl., Dr., Ga., Gl., Hor., Pa., Pr., Ta., Ty., Wc.	202	187	109	125	51	35	10	497	16	10	6	3

Schools for the Deaf in the United States, 1899-1900. 65

188	N. Y. Institut'n for Imp'v'd Inst'n	Oral	Dr., Pa., sec of tools	219	201	198	95	201	201	745	24	7	21	1	21	7	
189	Clark School	Oral	Oral, Be., Sl., Wc	174	160	81	69	160	160	625	24	1	23	1	18	4	
190	Arkansas Institute	Combined	Ar., Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	259	625	24	1	23	1	18	4	
191	Maryland School	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	106	96	99	37	62	74	462	17	6	11	4	4	6	
192	Nebraska Institute	Combined	Ar., Dr., Man., Pr., Sc., Sh., Ty	198	158	97	61	87	61	652	31	11	10	3	8	7	
193	St. Joseph's Institute (N. Y.)	Combined	Ar., Be., Car., Ol., Dr., Fa., Fam., Ga., Ho., Pr., Sh., Sl., Ta., Wc, Wt., Ww	421	371	192	179	371	371	1,108	49	38	1	94	11	11	
194	West Virginia School	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	144	144	70	74	19	19	600	16	10	5	13	2	4	
195	Mytic Oral School	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	40	33	10	23	33	33	124	6	10	5	13	2	4	
196	Oregon School	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	11	63	31	31	26	19	200	7	1	1	1	1	1	
197	Mid School for Colored	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	43	22	16	25	13	13	136	8	1	1	1	1	1	
198	Colorado School	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	90	71	43	34	44	44	237	16	6	10	4	6	6	
199	Central N. Y. Institution	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	100	181	68	90	60	60	467	17	6	11	4	4	6	
200	Western Penna. Institution	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	340	188	92	95	87	87	649	23	9	13	3	7	7	
201	Western New York Inst'n	Man. Alph	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	192	169	77	92	107	107	625	24	1	23	1	18	4	
202	Western New York Inst'n	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	86	77	45	32	70	61	176	12	1	1	1	1	1	
203	Western New York Inst'n	Oral	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	76	41	37	21	14	14	180	12	1	1	1	1	1	
204	Western New York Inst'n	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	23	23	10	13	13	13	73	3	1	1	1	1	1	
205	Western New York Inst'n	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	49	27	22	22	22	22	187	6	9	3	1	1	1	
206	Western New York Inst'n	Oral	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	90	79	29	80	79	79	143	12	1	1	1	1	1	
207	Western New York Inst'n	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	165	135	74	61	135	61	405	16	11	3	10	5	5	
208	Western New York Inst'n	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	89	69	42	47	44	43	163	13	6	2	6	4	4	
209	Western New York Inst'n	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	91	84	45	39	49	43	184	16	14	9	4	4	4	
210	Western New York Inst'n	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	63	38	18	17	17	17	180	10	4	6	1	2	2	
211	Western New York Inst'n	Manual	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	15	12	7	0	0	0	30	1	1	1	1	1	1	
212	Western New York Inst'n	Manual	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	79	70	36	35	35	35	189	10	5	4	3	1	3	
213	Western New York Inst'n	Manual	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	44	44	26	19	19	19	95	4	4	4	4	4	4	
214	Western New York Inst'n	Oral	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	26	24	16	8	8	8	92	8	5	5	2	2	2	
215	Western New York Inst'n	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	61	52	24	28	33	33	109	9	1	1	1	1	1	
216	Western New York Inst'n	Oral	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	60	60	32	28	60	60	308	9	2	2	1	1	1	
217	Western New York Inst'n	Manual	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	29	18	10	94	46	46	278	21	0	12	4	8	3	
218	Western New York Inst'n	Combined	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	325	194	100	94	46	46	567	21	0	12	4	8	3	
219	Western New York Inst'n	Manual	Oral, Be., Cud., Cal., Car., Og., Dr., Ga., Ha., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Sd., Ta., Wc	45	45	22	25	25	25	189	10	5	4	3	1	3	
220	Public Schools	10,560	9,069	4,964	4,125	6,405	3,402	111	41,723	11,493	431	889	235	443	276
221	Public Day-Schools (b)	740	648	267	267	619	9	1,519	114	12	619	6	79	98	98
222	Denom'n and Private Schools (c)	442	345	168	206	322	169	8	1,535	66	15	1,80	2	39	20
223	Schools in the United States	11,942	10,087	5,470	4,817	8,236	4,086	128	44,777	13,000	458	961	248	561	323

* See page 79. ** Including those who have left school during the year. † A = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method. ‡ Including the superintendent or principal and the teachers of industries. (In the Peoria/yanis Institution are also included two teachers of drawing and one of physical culture who, like the teachers of industries, teach in both the oral and manual departments; the total number of teachers in both departments; the total number of teachers and the number in each class are given in the middle line of the three lines of figures.) In the summation of instructors only the middle line relating to the instructors of the Illinois Institution is counted. † Including those who teach speech and those who teach by groups, but not the teachers of industries. (a) For 1898-99. (b) See page 71. (c) See page 75.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1899-1900—Continued.
• PUBLIC SCHOOLS (NOT INCLUDING DAY-SCHOOLS) IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Name.	Vacation.	How Supported.	Value of buildings and grounds.	Expenditure last fiscal year.		No. vols. in library.
				For support.	For buildings and grounds.	
1 American Asylum.....	Last Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Endowment and N. E. States.....	\$250,000	\$117,383	2,000
2 New York Institution.....	Second Tuesday in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	526,000	\$12,828	7,634
3 Pennsylvania do.....	Last Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State endowment, and pay pupils.....	1,000,000	186,598	5,679	6,700
4 Kentucky do.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wednesday in Sept.....	State.....	143,500	59,365	2,64	2,200
5 Ohio.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	850,000	93,042	81,000	3,000
6 Virginia..... do*	Second Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	150,000	38,200	600
7 Indiana..... do	Second week in June to fourth week in Sept.....	do.....	536,685	61,599	8,644	3,349
8 Tennessee School.....	Third Wed. in June to second Fri. in Sept.....	do.....	175,000	33,010	3,000	950
9 North Carolina Institution*	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	55,000	15,000	1,000
10 Illinois Institution.....	Second Wed. in June to third Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	672,875	95,210	5,462
11 Georgia School.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	85,000	26,614	1,200
12 South Carolina Institution*	Last Wed. in June to first Wed. in Oct.....	State and pay pupils.....	61,000	19,505	287	925
13 Missouri School.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	313,000	47,000	1,000	2,500
14 Louisiana do.....	June 1 to Oct. 1.....	do.....	300,000	18,000	1,000	400
15 Wisconsin School.....	Second Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	111,000	40,890	1,000	2,400
16 Michigan..... do	Thurs. after June 7 to third Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	435,505	8,461	3,536
17 Mississippi Institution.....	Third Wed. in June to first Mon. in Oct.....	do.....	75,000	28,166	500	700
18 Iowa School.....	June 30 to Oct. 1.....	do.....	400,000	43,500	3,000
19 Texas Asylum.....	1st Wed. in June to 1st Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	300,000	52,550	900
20 Columbia Institution.....	Wed. before last Wed. June to Thurs. before last Thurs. Sept.....	United States and pay pupils.....	700,000	70,346	3,000	4,470
21 Alabama do.....	June 10 to Sept. 10.....	State.....	100,000	29,797	500
22 California..... do*	Second Wed. in June to fourth Wed. in August.....	do.....	550,000	62,368	5,915	2,000
23 Kansas..... do	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	250,000	42,481	2,000
24 Le Contoux St. Mary's Inst.....	Wed. before last week in June to first Mon. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	234,000	34,142	25,864	2,000
25 Minnesota School.....	First Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	276,000	46,572	9,000	788
26 N. Y. Inst. for Imp'v'd Ins'n.....	Third Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	213,716	56,398	6,552	1,925
27 Clarke School.....	Forty weeks after third Mon. in Sept. to third Mon. in Sept.....	Endowment, N. E. States, and pay pupils.....	156,000	48,562	900
					2,635

Schools for the Deaf in the United States, 1899-1900. 67

28	Arkansas Institute.....	Second Wed. in June to first Wed. in Oct.....	State	200,000	53,000	2,500	1,200
29	Maryland School.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	255,000	25,096	2,354	3,035
30	Nebraska Institute.....	Middle of June to middle of Sept.....	do.....		31,275	40,000	1,457
31	St. Joseph's Institute (N. Y.).....	Last Fri. in June to second Mon. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	512,303	87,802		1,980
32	West Virginia School*.....	Forty weeks after second Wed. in Sept. to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	90,000	38,000		400
33	Mystic Oral School.....	Twelve weeks.....	State and tuition fees.....				300
34	Oregon School.....	June 1 to Sept. 20.....	State and tuition fees.....	30,000	11,464		200
35	Md. School for Colored*.....	June 25 to Sept. 10.....	State.....				
36	Colorado Institute.....	First Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	223,000	24,000		650
37	Central N. Y. Institution.....	Second week in June to third Wed. in Sept.....	State and counties.....	130,000	38,211		600
38	Western Penn'a Institution.....	Last Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	State and voluntary contributions.....	258,095	47,932	977	3,254
39	Western New York Institution...	Forty-two w'ks after first Mon. in Sept. to first Mon. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	130,000	52,409	490	7,000
40	Maine School.....	Middle of June to second Mon. in Sept.....	State.....	30,000	14,000	1,000	600
41	Rhode Island Institute.....	Third Fri. in June to second Mon. in Sept.....	do.....	80,000	19,000	44,000	165
42	N. E. Industrial School.....	Third Wed. in June to second Tues. in Sept.....	Voluntary contributions and State.....	15,000	4,000	5 0	
43	South Dakota School.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State	81,675	12,250	4,500	185
44	Penna. Oral School.....	June 20 to Sept. 1.....	do.....	155,500	20,085		170
45	New Jersey School.....	June 16 to Sept. 10.....	do.....	125,000	40,000		2,200
46	Utah School*.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State and pay pupils.....	205,500	32,786	6,500	364
47	Northern N. Y. Institution.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State and counties.....	88,000	26,002	5,639	592
48	Florida School*.....	June 1 to Oct. 1.....	State.....	18,000	10,797	2,500	250
49	New Mexico School.....	Last week in June to first week in Oct.....	Territory				250
50	Washington State School*.....	Thurs. after last Wed. in May to last Wed. in Aug.....	State				
51	Texas Institute for Colored*.....	June 15 to Sept. 15.....	do.....	50,000	15,075		700
52	Albany Home School.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....				
53	North Dakota School.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	42,000	10,514	4,481	350
54	Home for Training in Speech.....	None.....	State and pay pupils.....	60,000	16,339	1,000	350
55	Montana School*.....	Second Wed. in June to second W'd. in Sept.....	State.....	54,542	8,912	3,767	100
56	North Carolina School†.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	51,000	9,500	19,000	75
57	Oklahoma Institute.....	July and August.....	Territory.....				
57	Public Schools.....						
40	Public Day-Sch'ls. (See page 72.)						
15	Denominational and Private Schools. (See page 76.)						
112	Schools in the United States.						

* Contains a department for the blind also, the expenses of which are included in the statement of expenditures.

† For the year 1898-'99.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1899-1900—Continued.

B.—PUBLIC DAY-SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Name.	Location.	Date of Opening	Chief Executive Officer.
1 Horace Mann School for the Deaf.....	Boston, Mass. (178 Newbury St.).....	1869	Miss Sarah Fuller, Principal.
2 Wicker Park Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	(Evergr'n Av. near Robey St.	(a)	
3 Hartigan Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Armour Ave. near 41st St....	1879	
4 Prescott Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Wrightw'd & Ashland Avea.	1879	
5 Monroe Street Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	157 Monroe St.....	1875	
6 Yale Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Cor. 70th St. and Yale Ave..	1836	
7 Lyman Trumbull Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Cor. Sedg'k & Division Sta..	1896	Miss Mary McCowen, Sup'g Principal.
8 Kozminski Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Cor. 54th St. & Ingleside Av.	1896	
9 Seward Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	4634 Ashland Ave.....	1897	
10 Darwin Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Hum. Blvd. & Armitage Av	1898	
11 Burr Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Ashl'd Av. near North Av.	1898	
12 Froebel Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	21st St. near Robey St.....	1898	
13 Cincinnati Public School for the Deaf.....	Cincinnati, Ohio (719 W. Sixth St.).....	1875	Miss Caroline Fesenbeck, Principal.
14 St. Louis Day-School for the Deaf.....	St. Louis, Mo. (c).....	1878	Jas. H. Cloud, M. A., Principal.
15 Milwaukee Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Milwaukee, Wis. (d).....	1883	Miss Frances Wettstein, Principal.
16 Oral School of Cincinnati.....	Cincinnati, Ohio (719 W. Sixth St.)	1886	Miss Virginia A. Osborn, Principal.
17 Evansville Day-School for the Deaf.....	Evansville, Ind. (High School Build'g)..	1886	Paul Lange, M. A., Principal.
18 Wausau Day-School for the Deaf.....	Wausau, Wis.....	1890	Miss Margaret Hurley, Principal.
19 Cleveland Day-School for the Deaf.....	Cleveland, Ohio (f).....	1892	Miss Katherine King, Principal.
20 Manitowoc Day-School for the Deaf.....	Manitowoc, Wis.....	1893	Miss Dora Hendrickson, Principal.
21 Sheboygan Day-School for the Deaf.....	Sheboygan, Wis.....	1894	Miss H. Ray Kriba, Principal.
22 Detroit Day-School for the Deaf.....	Detroit, Mich. (g).....	1894	Miss M. Lizzie Donohoe, Principal.
23 Eau Claire Day-School for the Deaf.....	Eau Claire, Wis.....	1895	Miss Jennie C. Smith, Principal.
24 Fond du Lac School for the Deaf.....	Fond du Lac, Wis.....	1895	Miss Anna Sullivan, Principal.
25 Marinette School for the Deaf.....	Marinette, Wis. (1532 Main St.).....	1895	Miss Frances O. Ellis, Principal.
26 Oshkosh School for the Deaf.....	Oshkosh, Wis. (Library building).....	1895	Miss Katharine Grimes, Principal.
27 Appleton School for the Deaf.....	Appleton, Wis.....	1896	Miss Hannah I. Gardner, Principal.
28 Green Bay Day-School for the Deaf.....	Green Bay, Wis.....	1897	Miss Irene Van Benscoten, Teacher.
29 Black River Falls School for the Deaf.....	Black River Falls, Wis.....	1897	Miss Lucy Ruth Bronskey, Principal.
30 Superior Day-School for the Deaf.....	West Superior, Wis.....	1897	Miss Della Page, Principal.
31 La Salle Day-School for the Deaf.....	La Salle, Ill.....	1898	Miss Mary Leahy, Principal.
32 Los Angeles Oral School for the Deaf.....	Los Angeles, Cal.....	1898	J. A. Foshay, Principal.
33 Lorain County Oral Deaf School.....	Elyria, Lorain Co., Ohio.....	1898	Miss Binkley, Teacher.
34 Ashland Day-School for the Deaf.....	Ashland, Wis.....	1898	Miss Katharine Moriarty, Teacher.

35	Nellisville Day-School for the Deaf.....	Nellisville, Wis.....	1898	Miss Elizabeth H. Irish, B. A., Teacher.
36	La Crosse Day-School for the Deaf.....	La Crosse, Wis.....	1899	Miss Margaret Maywood, Principal.
37	Dayton School for the Deaf.....	Dayton, O. (Cor. Brown & Hess Sts.)...	1899	Miss Jessie F. Zeering, Principal.
38	Derinda School for the Deaf.....	Derinda, Ill.....	1899	Miss Anna M. Black, Teacher.
39	Oakland Oral Day-School for the Deaf.....	Oakland, Cal. (11th & Jefferson Sts.)...	1899	Miss Charlotte Louise Morgan, Director.
40	Tomah Day-School for the Deaf.....	Tomah, Wis.....	1899	Miss Hulda Rudolph, Principal.
40	Public Day-Schools in the United States.			

(a) The first Public Day-School for the Deaf in Chicago was opened in 1875 in a rented building on Van Buren Street. (c) Cor. Ninth and Wash Streets.
(d) Cor. Seventh and Prairie Streets. (f) 1304 Willson Avenue. (g) Corner Twelfth and Calumet Streets.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1899-1900—Continued.
PUBLIC DAY-SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Name.	Methods of Instruction.	Industries Taught.	NUMBER OF PUPILS.			PRESENT NUMBERS OF INSTRUCTORS.			
			Present Nov. 10, 1899.			Present Nov. 10, 1899.			
			Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	
			Within the year 1899.						

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1899-1900—Continued.

PUBLIC DAY-SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

	Name.	Vacation.	How Supported.
1	Horace Mann School.....	Last Tuesday in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	State and City.
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7	Chicago Public Schools	July and August.....	State Common School Fund.
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			
13	Cincinnati Public School	June 23 to second Mon. in Sept.....	City.
14	St. Louis School	Second Friday in June to first Mon. in Sept.....	City.
15	Milwaukee School.....	Last Fri. in June to first Mon. in Sept.....	State and City and County.
16	Cincinnati Oral School	June 20 to Sept. 8.....	State and City.
17	Evansville School.....	First Thurs. in June to first Mon. in Sept	City.
18	Wausau Oral School.....	June 18 to Sept. 8.....	State and City.
19	Cleveland School.....	June 15 to Sept 15.....	City.
20	Manitowoc School	Last of June to first of Sept.....	State and City.
21	Sheboygan School	State and City.
22	Detroit School.....	Twelve weeks.....	City.
23	Fau Claire School.....	Sixteen weeks.....	State and City.
24	Fond du Lac School.....	June 1 to Sept. 9.....	State and City.
25	Marquette School.....	Last of June to first of Sept	State and City.
26	Oshkosh School.....	June 25 to Sept. 6.....	State and City.
27	Appleton School.....	June, July, August.....	State and City.
28	Green Bay School.....	June 15 to Sept. 6.....	State and City.
29	Black River Falls School.....	State and City.
30	Superior School.....	July and August.....	State and City.
31	La Salle School	Last of June to first of September	State and City.
32	Los Angeles School	City and private subscription.

33	Lorain County School.....	State and County.
34	Ashland School.....	State and City.
35	Nettleville School.....	State and City.
36	La Crosse School	State and City.
37	Dayton School.....	State and City.
38	Derinda School	State and City.
39	Oakland School.....	City and private subscription.
40	Tomah School.....	State and City.
—	Public Day-Schools in the United States.		
40			

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1899-1900-Continued.

O.--DENOMINATIONAL AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Name.	Location.	Date of Opening.	Chief Executive Officer.
1 German Evangelical Lutheran Deaf and Dumb School.....	North Detroit, Wayne Co., Mich.....	1873	D. H. Uhlig, Director.
2 St. John's Catholic Deaf-Mute Institute.....	St. Francis, Wis.....	1876	Rev. M. M. Gerend, President.
3 F. Knapp's Institute.....	Baltimore, Md. (861 & 863 Hollins St.)...	1877	Wm. A. Knapp, Principal.
4 The McCowen Oral School for Young Deaf Children.....	Chicago, Ill. (6550 Yale Ave.).....	1883	Miss Cornelia D. Blughain, Head Teacher.
5 Ephpheta School for the Deaf.....	Chicago, Ill. (409 S. May St.).....	1884	Miss Annie M. Larkin, Superintendent.
6 Mariae Consilia School for the Deaf.....	St. Louis, Mo. (1849 Cass Ave.).....	1885	Sister M. Adele, Principal.
7 Sarah Fuller Home for Little Children Who Cannot Hear.....	West Medford, Mass. (93 Woburn St.)..	1888	Miss Eliza L. Clark, Principal & Matron.
8 Notre Dame School for the Deaf.....	Cincinnati, O. (a).....	1890	Sister Mary of the S. Heart, Prin.
9 Deaf-Mute Institute of the Holy Rosary.....	Chinchuba, St. Tammany Parish, La.....	1890	Very Rev. Canon H. C. Mignot, Pres.
10 St. Joseph's Deaf-Mute Institute for Boys.....	Longwood Place, South St. Louis, Mo...	1892	Rev. Mother Agatha, Principal
11 Wright-Humason School.....	New York, N. Y. (42 West 76th St.).....	1894	{Thos. A. Humason, M. A., Ph. D. } Prin's { John Dutton Wright, M. A. }
12 St. Joseph's School and Home for Deaf-Mutes.....	North Temescal, Cal.....	1895	Sister M. Valeria, Principal.
13 San Francisco School for the Deaf	San Francisco, Cal. (522 Oak St.).....	1898	A. N. Holden, Principal.
14 Western Oklahoma School for the Deaf	Byron, Woods Co., O. T.....	1898	Ellsworth Long, B. S., Principal.
15 Boston School for the Deaf.....	Jamaica Plain, Mass. (9-11 St. Joseph St)	1899	Rev. Thomas Magennis, Treas. Corp.
15 Denominational and Private Schools in the United States.			

(a) Sixth Street, between Sycamore and Broadway.

Schools for the Deaf in the United States, 1899-1900. 75

Name.	Methods of Instruction.*	Industries Taught.†	NUMBER OF PUPILS.										Present Number of Instructors.				
			PERCENT NOV. 15, 1899.										PERCENT NOV. 15, 1899.				
			WILLING TO SPEAK										Total				
			Total	Male.	Female.	A.†	B.†	C.†	Total	Male.	Female.	Total	Male.	Female.	Total	Male.	Female.
1 German Lutheran Institute.	Combined.	None	45	37	8	26	26	26	237	16	21	37	16	21	37	16	21
2 St. John's Catholic Institute.	Combined.	Car., Pa., Wc.	63	61	2	42	40	2	240	50	21	71	50	21	71	50	21
3 Mr. Knepp's Institute (a).	Oral.	None	27	27	0	14	14	0	268	17	7	24	17	7	24	17	7
4 McCowen Oral School.	Oral.	Dr., So., Se., Ill.	30	30	0	20	20	0	400	30	10	40	30	10	40	30	10
5 Epiphany School.	Combined.	Cl., Pa., Wc.	38	38	0	20	20	0	407	38	10	48	38	10	48	38	10
6 Maria Conalia School.	Combined.	Cl., Pa., Wc.	17	17	0	10	10	0	49	17	6	23	17	6	23	17	6
7 Sarah Fuller Home.	Oral.	None	16	16	0	10	10	0	63	16	6	22	16	6	22	16	6
8 Notre Dame School.	Combined.	Se.	41	41	0	14	14	0	57	41	14	55	41	14	55	41	14
9 Institute of the Holy Rosary.	Combined.	Dr., So.	20	20	0	14	14	0	57	20	14	34	20	14	34	20	14
10 St. Joseph's Institute (Mo.).	Combined.	Pa., Fr.	31	31	0	19	19	0	58	31	13	44	31	13	44	31	13
11 Wright-Huntson School (Cal.).	Oral.	None	31	31	0	19	19	0	58	31	13	44	31	13	44	31	13
12 St. Joseph's Institute (Cal.).	Oral.	Art, Dr., Min.	4	4	0	3	3	0	7	4	3	7	4	3	7	4	3
13 San Francisco School (b).	Oral.	Cl., Pa., Wc.	15	15	0	13	13	0	18	15	3	18	15	3	18	15	3
14 Western Oklahoma School (a) (b).	Manual.	None	4	4	0	3	3	0	7	4	3	7	4	3	7	4	3
15 Boston School.	Oral.	None	15	15	0	13	13	0	18	15	3	18	15	3	18	15	3
16 Denon and Private Schools.	Oral.	None	449	383	66	306	332	168	1,650	145	206	351	145	206	351	145	206

* See page 73. † See page 80.
 or chiefly by the Oral method. C = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Articulate method.
 ‡ Including those who teach speech and those who teach by speech, but not the teachers of Industries.
 of only the deaf pupils and their instructors are here given (b) For the year 1898-'99

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1899-1900—Continued
DENOMINATIONAL AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Name.	Vacation.	How Supported.
1 German Evangelical Lutheran Institute	July 15th to September 1st.....	Tuition fees and Lutheran Congregations.
2 St. John's Catholic Institute.....	End of June to first week in Sept.....	Voluntary contributions and tuition fees.
3 Mr. Knapp's Institute.....	None.....	Tuition fees and State appropriations.
4 McCowen Oral School.....	None.....	Tuition fees and voluntary contributions.
5 Ephpheta School.....	Last Friday in June to first Monday in Sept.....	Tuition fees and voluntary subscriptions.
6 Marie Consilia School.....	Last week of June to first week of Sept.....	Tuition fees and voluntary contributions.
7 Sarah Fuller Home.....	August.....	Private subscription.
8 Notre Dame School.....	15th of June to first week in September.	Voluntary contributions and tuition fees.
9 Institute of the Holy Rosary.....	June 1 to September 1.....	Voluntary contributions and tuition fees.
10 St. Joseph's Institute (Mo.).....	June 30 to Sept. 1.....	Tuition fees.
11 Wright-Humason School.....	June 7 to Oct. 1.....	Industry of sisters and tuition fees.
12 St. Joseph's Institute (Cal.).....	Two months.....	Private.
13 San Francisco School.....	July 2 to Sept. 1.....	Private subscription.
14 Western Oklahoma School.....	Corporation funds.
15 Boston School	Third Wednesday in June to First Wednesday in September.....	
15 Denominational and Private Schools.		

C.—SCHOOLS IN CANADA.

Name.	Location.	Date of opening.	Chief Executive Officer.
1 ¹ Catholic Male Deaf-Mute Institution for the Province of Quebec.	Mt. End, near Montreal, P. Q.	1848	Rev. Alf. Bélanger, O. S. V., Director.
2 Catholic Female Deaf and Dumb Institute.	Montreal, P. Q. (546 St. Louis St.)	1851	Rev. Sister Philippe de Jesus, Superioress.
3 Halifax Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Halifax, N. S.	1857	James Fearon, Principal.
4 Ontario Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Bellefleur, Ontario	1870	Robert Matheson, M. A., Superintendent.
5 Mackay Institution for Protestant Deaf-Mutes and the Blind.	Montreal, P. Q. (s)	1870	Mrs. Harriet E. Ashcroft, Superintendent.
6 Frederickton Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb	Fredericton, N. B.	1882	Albert F. Woodbridge, Principal.
7 Manitoba Deaf and Dumb Institution	Winnipeg, Manitoba.	1888	D. W. McDermid, Principal.
7 Schools in Canada.			

Name.	Methods of Instruction.*	Industries Taught.†	NUMBER OF PUPILS.										PRESENT NUMBERS OF INSTRUCTORS.			
			PRESENT NOV. 10, 1899.										PRESENT NOV. 10, 1900.			
			Total.	Male.	Female.	A.†	B.†	C.†	Total have received instruction.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Industrial.
1 Cath. Inst (Male) { Oral Dep { Man. do. Manual.....	Oral.....	Bas., Bl., Bo., Cab., Car., Fa., Ga., Pa., Pr., Sh., Ta., Wc.	65	65	0	66	56	0	782	131	115	16	23	15	8	14
2 Cath. Inst (Fem) { Oral Dep { Man. do. Manual.....	Oral.....	Art., Em., Ho., Kn., Sc., Wes.	110	110	0	110	106	4	877	131	115	16	23	15	8	14
3 Halifax Institution { Oral Dep { Man. do. Manual.....	Oral.....	Car., Dr., Ga., Pr., Sh., Ta., Wc.	84	84	0	84	78	6	465	131	115	16	23	15	8	14
4 Ontario Institution { Oral Dep { Man. do. Manual.....	Oral.....	Bas., Car., Dr., Fa., Ga., Pa., Pr., Sh., Ta., Wc.	253	253	0	253	243	10	1,168	131	115	16	23	15	8	14
5 Mackay Institution { Oral Dep { Man. do. Manual.....	Oral.....	Bas., Car., Dr., Fa., Ga., Pa., Pr., Sh., Ta., Wc.	63	63	0	63	57	6	777	131	115	16	23	15	8	14
6 Frederickton Institution { Oral Dep { Man. do. Manual.....	Oral.....	Needlework, china painting	39	39	0	39	36	3	105	131	115	16	23	15	8	14
7 Manitoba Institution { Oral Dep { Man. do. Manual.....	Oral.....	Co., Fa., Pr., Sc., Wc.	53	53	0	53	46	7	96	131	115	16	23	15	8	14
7 Schools in Canada.			868	868	0	868	816	52	3,630	131	115	16	23	15	8	14

* See page 79. † See page 80. ‡ Including those who have left school during the year. † A = number taught speech. B = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method. C = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Auricular method. †† Including those who teach speech and those who teach by speech, but not the teachers of industries. (a) Notre Dame de Grace.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1899-1900—Continued.
SCHOOLS IN CANADA—Continued.

Name.	Vacation.	How Supported.	Value of buildings and grounds.	EXPENDITURE LAST FISCAL YEAR.		No. volumes in library.
				For support.	For buildings and grounds.	
1 Catholic Inst'n, (Male).....	Third Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	Province, pupils, and vol. contributions....	\$300,000	1,800
2 Catholic Inst'n, (Female).....	July 1st to Sept. 1st.....	Province and voluntary contributions.....	7,974
3 Halifax Institution	Last week in June to first week in Sept.....	Province and voluntary contributions	100,000	\$15,000	\$854
4 Ontario Institution.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Province.....	251,000	43,515	1,100	2,600
5 Mackay Institution.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Province, pupils, and vol. contributions....	60,000	10,476	200	800
6 Fredericton Institution.....	July 1 to Sept. 1.....	Province and voluntary contributions....	5,874
7 Manitoba Institution	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Province.....	35,000	11,700	500	400
7 Schools in Canada.						

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

THE "Methods of Instruction" named in the preceding Tabular Statement may be defined as follows :

I. *The Manual Method.*—Signs, the manual alphabet, and writing are the chief means used in the instruction of the pupils, and the principal objects aimed at are mental development and facility in the comprehension and use of written language. The degree of relative importance given to these three means varies in different schools ; but it is a difference only in degree, and the end aimed at is the same in all.

II. *The Manual Alphabet Method.*—The manual alphabet and writing are the chief means used in the instruction of the pupils, and the principal objects aimed at are mental development and facility in the comprehension and use of written language. Speech and speech-reading are taught to all or part of the pupils in some of the schools recorded as following this method.

III. *The Oral Method.*—Speech and speech-reading, together with writing, are made the chief means of instruction, and facility in speech and speech-reading, as well as mental development and written language, is aimed at. There is a difference in different schools in the extent to which the use of natural signs is allowed in the early part of the course, and also in the prominence given to writing as an auxiliary to speech and speech-reading in the course of instruction ; but they are differences only in degree, and the end aimed at is the same in all.

IV. *The Auricular Method.*—The hearing of semi-deaf pupils is developed and improved to the greatest possible extent, and, with or without the aid of artificial appliances, their education is carried on chiefly through the use of speech and hearing, together with writing. The aim of the method is to graduate its pupils as hard-of-hearing speaking people instead of deaf-mutes.

V. *The Combined System.*—Speech and speech-reading are regarded as very important, but mental development and the acquisition of language are regarded as still more important. It is believed that in many cases mental development and the acquisition of language can be best promoted by the Manual or the Manual Alphabet method, and, so far as circumstances permit, such method is chosen for each pupil as seems best adapted for his individual case. Speech and speech-reading are taught where the measure of success seems likely to justify the labor expended, and in most of the schools some of the pupils are taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method or by the Auricular method.

INDUSTRIES TAUGHT IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

The "Industries Taught" in American Schools for the Deaf, mostly designated by abbreviations in the preceding Tabular Statement, are :

Art, Baking (Bak.), Barbering (Bar.), Basket-making (Bas.), Blacksmithing (Bl.), Bookbinding (Bo.), Bricklaying (Bk.), Broom-making (Br.), Cabinet-making (Cab.), Calcimining (Cal.), Carpentry (Car.), Chalk-engraving (Ce.), Cementing (Cg.), Chair-making (Ch.), China painting, (Cp.), Cooking (Ck.), Clay-modelling (Cl.), Coopery (Co.), Drawing (Dra.), Dress-making (Dr.), Embroidery (Em.), Engineering (En.), Fancy-work (Fan.), Farming (Fa.), Floriculture (Fl.), Gardening (Ga.), Glazing (Gl.), Harness making (Ha.), Half-tone engraving (He.), Housework (Ho.), Horticulture (Hor.), Ironing (Ir.), Knitting (Kn.), Manual-training (Man.), Mattress-making (Ma.), Millinery (Mi.), Needlework, Painting (Pa.), Paper-hanging (Pap.), Plastering (Pl.), Plate-engraving (Pe.), Photography (Ph.), Printing (Pr.), Sewing (Se.), Shoemaking (Sh.), Sloyd (Sl.), Stone-laying (St.), Tailoring (Ta.), Typewriting (Ty.), Venetian Iron Work (Ven.), Weaving (Wea.), Wood-carving (Wc.), Wood-engraving (We.), Wood-turning (Wt.), Wood-working (Ww.), and the Use of Tools.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Albany School.—Miss Carrie Freck, a teacher in this School for the past three years, has resigned to teach in the New York Institution for Improved Instruction and is succeeded by Miss Marti K. Wilson.

Arkansas Institute.—Three large temporary frame structures and two brick additions are nearly completed and the school is expected to open on the third of January, 1900. Suitable buildings have been rented for the Colored Department.

Miss Emma Dora Branson, a graduate of this Institute and a teacher here for the past two years, was accidentally drowned near her home on the 7th of September last. As a pupil she was distinguished for the excellence of her character and the loveliness of her disposition, and as a teacher of little children she was unusually successful.

Boston School.—The Boston School for the Deaf was incorporated May 3, 1899, and opened about December 1. The teachers are Sisters of St. Joseph who have been trained in the Le Couteulx St. Mary's Institution and have made prolonged visits of observation to other schools. Accommodations are available for twenty boarding pupils and twenty day pupils. The Oral method of instruction is followed.

Chefoo School.—Mrs. Mills's school for deaf boys in Chefoo, China, is still carried on successfully with the aid of a native helper. The means of support are derived almost wholly from American and British sources, chiefly the deaf and their friends. Dr. Z. F. Westervelt, Superintendent of the Western New York Institution, Rochester, New York, in whose school Mrs. Mills was formerly a teacher, is glad to receive and forward any money that may be contributed.

Chicago Day-Schools.—Miss Emma D. Knox, Miss Margaret V. McKee, and Miss Catherine Martin have been added to the corps of teachers.

The "Little Deaf Child" League has published a booklet of quotations, which is sold for 35 cents, for the benefit of the summer work for the deaf children of Chicago. Orders for the booklet may be sent to Miss Mary McCowen, 6550 Yale Ave., Chicago, Illinois.

Cincinnati Oral School.—A kindergarten class has been organized under the instruction of Miss Bessie A. Tucker, who graduated several years ago from the Cincinnati Normal School and took a course of training for kindergarten work at the McCowen School last year.

Physical exercise of all kinds is made a more prominent feature than formerly. Considerable field work is done by the entire School. Visits are made once a month by the intermediate classes to factories and other places of interest, such as the *Commercial* newspaper printing office, the Art Museum, the city water works, the Cuvier Club Museum, etc. A system of rotating classes has been introduced. The vertical method of writing has been introduced. Soup is now served for luncheon; formerly the pupils had only cold lunches.

The Southwestern Ohio Parents' Association to Promote the Education of the Deaf holds its meetings at the School the last Friday of every month. The exercises this year include lectures by Dr. Louis Grossman on "The Receptive Condition of the Pupil," Dr. Robert Sattler on "The Development of Hearing," and Dr. C. R. Holmes on "The Causes of Deafness and Preventive Measures." The last Friday of every month is also made a visiting day for parents and citizens interested in the work. The regular program is set aside and the exer-

cises are explained to the visitors, or the method of teaching any special subject is shown upon request.

Clarke School.—The Gilmore Gymnasium, the gift of the grandparents of one of the pupils of the school, mentioned in the June number of the *Annals*, has been completed and equipped and is now ready for use.

Cleveland Day-School.—Miss Minnie C. Krause, a graduate of the Home for Training in Speech, Philadelphia, has been appointed teacher of the kindergarten class, and Miss Maud Parker, a graduate of the Cleveland Art School, teacher of drawing.

Florida School.—Misses May and Robina Tillinghast have been elected to fill the places of Mr. Harry Reed and Miss Mabry, the latter resigning on account of ill health. In the Negro department Miss Mamie Mayes has been elected as an additional teacher.

A new building for the negroes was completed during the vacation, and a number of improvements were made in the buildings and grounds. The laundry-room was enlarged and a new storeroom built.

Fredericton Institution.—Miss Hattie May Northrop, of Apohaqui, has been added to the corps of instructors. The services of Mr. Percy H. Smith, of St. John, a graduate of the University of New Brunswick, have been secured as collector for the Institution.

Illinois Institution.—Dr. J. H. Brown, a valued teacher, has resigned his position in consequence of impaired health. Mr. Arthur B. Fairbank, who graduated with distinction several years ago from Illinois College, and has been boys' supervisor in the Illinois School for a year and a half, will take charge of Dr. Brown's class for the remainder of the year. Mr. Philip Read, a recent graduate of Illinois College (a son of Rev. Frank Read, and a brother of several teachers in the profession), succeeds Mr. Fairbank as supervisor of the boys.

A pamphlet giving the titles of recent additions to the library has recently been published; it will be mailed to any address upon application.

Keeler Class.—Miss Sarah Warren Keeler, for nearly twenty-

seven years a teacher in the New York Institution for Improved Instruction, and for eleven years teacher of the "Keeler Class" in New York city, died September 13, 1899, of apoplexy, caused by over-study. She had abandoned the work of teaching the deaf for the study of the law, though she still had private pupils, and shortly before her death had been graduated from the Law Department of the University of New York. She was an able and successful teacher, and had many friends both in and out of the profession.

Louisiana Institution.—The opening of the school was postponed until November 14 this year on account of yellow fever. The statistics given in our Tabular Statement relate to the pupils present November 20.

Mr. C. P. Gillett has resigned his position as teacher; he is succeeded by Mrs. Ida Austin, formerly of the Texas School.

McCowen School.—By a "bag sale" at the Chrysanthemum Show in November the ladies of the Board of Trustees netted \$2,325 for the benefit of this School. This sum is a little more than the floating debt.

Muckay Institution.—Miss Sibelle King, special teacher of articulation, has been granted a year's leave of absence. Miss Ethel Ross has been added to the staff of instruction.

Maine School.—Miss Mabel J. Libby and Miss Alice Armstrong have been added to the corps of instructors, and Miss Mary L. Divine, a teacher in the School, has been appointed first assistant to the Principal.

The News, a small paper, is printed weekly under the direction of Mr. George E. Fister. Its purpose is to encourage reading among the pupils.

Manitowoc School.—Miss Ada Locke has resigned her position as Principal, and is succeeded by Miss Dora Hendrickson, of Manitowoc, a graduate of the Wisconsin Phonological Institute, class of 1899.

Maryland School for Colored.—The office of supervisor of boys has been created. The work of such an office has hitherto been performed by the teachers.

The continuous school session from 8 to 1 o'clock has been abandoned, and that time divided into periods of thirty-five

and forty minutes, with recesses of ten minutes between each. This gives pupils a chance to exercise and get fresh air, and the school-rooms in the mean time are aired. There are two periods of forty minutes each in the afternoon. All work, school as well as shop, ends at 3.30 in the afternoon. Steps have been taken to secure several hundred volumes as a beginning of a library for the deaf.

Milwaukee School.—Sixteen of the pupils of this school were enrolled as pupils of the Vacation School opened by the Woman's Club last summer. They entered the classes in sewing, drawing, gymnastics, and manual training with the hearing pupils. Their work compared favorably with that done by the hearing children. The nature work was presented by Miss Hibbard, a regular teacher in their own school. The interest of the children did not flag during the warmest weather, and the weekly excursions into the country afforded an opportunity for an ideal method of teaching nature work. The effect on the children was gratifying.

Michigan School.—The Akoulallion has been introduced as an instrument of instruction. Mr. Clarke's previous investigations and experiments render him an unusually competent judge of the value of artificial aids to hearing and we hope we shall have a report from him upon the results of the use of the Akoulallion in this School.

The corner stone of the fine new school building mentioned in the September *Annals* was laid with Masonic ceremonies on the 16th of November last.

Mississippi Institution.—The school did not open this year until November 21, on account of the yellow fever.

Miss Anna Lancaster, who was a normal student last year, and had had five years' experience as a teacher in common schools, has been put in the place of Miss Gillespie, who goes to the Arkansas School. Miss Alice Applewhite, a sister of Mr. J. A. Applewhite, of the Washington School, has been appointed normal student. The policy of the Institution now is to have a normal student each year. If possible, some one is chosen who has been a successful teacher in the State common schools. If that is not possible, a graduate of some good school is appointed.

Montana School.—Miss S. A. Tillinghast has resigned the position of matron and teacher and is succeeded by Mrs. E. S. Tillinghast.

The fourth story of the building has been completed and a steam-heating plant put in at a cost of about \$3,000.

Mystic School.—Miss Adelaide Perry, an experienced kindergartner, is attending the School for the purpose of observing and studying the Oral method of teaching the deaf.

New Jersey School.—Miss Elizabeth Hall has succeeded Miss Marsh, who went to the New York Institution. Mr. B. H. Sharp has full charge of the gymnasium work.

New Mexico School.—At the last session of the legislature a law was passed making the education of the deaf compulsory, but unfortunately no appropriation was made for their instruction during the present year, and the school is consequently closed for the second time in its history. Under the new law the blind are removed from the school, but no provision is made for their education elsewhere. The school at present seems to have three official names, all inappropriate: in the new law it is called "Asylum for the education of the deaf and the dumb;" in the finance funds law, "Deaf and Dumb Asylum," and on the letter-heading of the new board of trustees, "Asylum of the Deaf and Dumb." While the Territorial school is closed, Mr. Larson will carry on a private school, as he did when it was closed before.

New York Institution.—Miss Allis M. Townsend, a speech teacher of five years' experience, has been added to the corps of instruction.

Oakland Day-School.—The "Kindergarten Home" opened last year at Oakland, California, by Miss Charlotte Louise Morgan has been changed into a day-school. The city Board of Education furnish a room in the High School building and provide the services of the janitor; the salaries of the teachers are raised by subscription.

Ontario Institution.—Miss Ada James, who had leave of absence for one year on account of illness, resumed her duties, very much improved in health, when school opened in September last. Mr. Alex. Matheson, Bursar of the Institution for

eight years, retired in August, on account of ill health. Mr. William Cochrane, Assistant Bursar at the Rockwood Hospital for the Insane, Kingston, for twelve years, succeeds him. On the 13th of September last, the present Superintendent, Mr. Robert Mathison, completed his twentieth year of service. Before assuming the duties of Superintendent of the School for the Deaf, he was connected with the Asylum's Branch of Government work for nine years.

Oregon School.—The school course has been lengthened by the addition of two years to the course.

Pennsylvania Institution.—A reservoir with a capacity of about 250,000 gallons has recently been completed with a view to provide an emergency supply of water in case of temporary stoppage of the city mains. A large number of reading books have recently been added to the school libraries. A complete set of anthropological instruments has been ordered for the gymnasium.

Pennsylvania Oral School.—Miss Helen Merriman has resigned her position as teacher; she is succeeded by Miss Grace Williams, who was trained in this School last year.

Texas School.—Miss Pasquelle has resigned the position of art teacher to pursue her profession in New York. Miss Lacy is succeeded as teacher in the Primary Manual Department by her brother. Miss Frances K. Bell, M. A., a graduate of Synodical College and of the Normal Department of Gallaudet College, has been appointed as an additional teacher in the Oral Department.

The old buildings have been thoroughly remodelled and repaired and new buildings are in process of construction.

Texas Institute for Colored Youths.—Mr. Joseph Benton, of Carthage, Texas, has succeeded Mr. H. B. Fry as Principal. Mrs. S. J. Jenkins has succeeded Miss E. B. Wilder, and Miss Grace K. Wilkins Miss B. H. Wilkins, as teachers.

Tomah School.—The name of the Tomah, Wisconsin, Day-School is inserted in our Tabular Statement of Public Day-Schools this year on the authority of Mr. Robert C. Spencer, President of the Wisconsin Phonological Institute, Milwaukee. We have not been able to obtain any direct information

concerning it. A letter of inquiry addressed to the Superintendent or Principal of the School for the Deaf, Tomah, Wisconsin, was delivered to Mr. L. M. Compton, Superintendent of the Government Indian School at that place, and he wrote us that there was no school for the deaf there. But we have found Mr. Spencer right about day-schools in Wisconsin in several instances where other informants were wrong.

Washington State School.—Mr. A. G. Mashburn and Miss L. May Crawford, formerly teachers in the Arkansas Institute, have been added to the corps of instruction.

Western Pennsylvania Institution.—The main building was destroyed by fire December 14, 1899. The cause is unknown. The building was provided with hose, but the pressure of water was insufficient to extinguish the flames. The pupils were in school and shops, and were led out of the building in perfect order to places of safety. Some furniture and personal property were saved, but much was lost. The total loss is estimated at \$160,000; there was about \$75,000 insurance. The pupils residing at a distance were temporarily cared for by persons living near the Institution. The building will be restored as soon as possible; meanwhile the school will soon be continued in temporary quarters.

Wisconsin School.—Miss Cornelia S. Goode, who came into the School last spring to take the place vacated by Miss Florence Parry, has been engaged as a permanent addition to the corps of instruction.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The Use of Speech in School.—The President of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, in his address at the meeting held at Northampton last summer, said:

The plan so common a few years ago of giving pupils lessons in articulation for half an hour or so a day, without using the powers of speech and speech-reading acquired for the purposes of communication and instruction, has been almost given up, for the pupils now taught speech as an accomplishment merely, constitute only 5.1 per cent of the whole.

It would be difficult, if not impossible, to determine by any form of statistics precisely to what extent the powers of speech and speech-reading acquired by the pupils are now, or have been in the past, used for the purposes of communication and instruction. We trust that even pupils taught speech "as an accomplishment merely" have always made some use of the powers thus acquired. But, however it may have been some years ago, when the number of pupils taught speech was comparatively small, it is undoubtedly true at present, as Dr. Bell intimates, that the powers of speech and speech-reading acquired by the pupils are used considerably for the purposes of communication and instruction. This is the case not only in schools where all or part of the pupils are taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method, but also in schools where the "half-hour or so a day" plan of lessons in articulation is regarded as most advantageous. For instance, President Gallaudet reports that in Gallaudet College, "while no students are taught wholly by speech, the recitations of many are conducted orally, and there are several oral classes in the Sunday-school," and that in the Kendall School "the recitations of a number are conducted orally." Dr. Williams writes that in the American School at Hartford "in every class there is more or less teaching of speech, except those taught by deaf teachers," and Dr. Wilkinson remarks that in the California Institution "as soon as a pupil learns a word, it is then used in instruction. Nothing is taught as an accomplishment, any more than mathematics is."

Number of Schools in the World.—In the "International Reports of Schools for the Deaf," published by the Volta Bureau in 1895, statistics were given of 474 schools. Since then additional addresses have been obtained, especially from Belgium, Russia, and Great Britain, so that the Bureau now has a list of 567 schools for the deaf in the world, to which blanks were sent in December, 1899, asking for statistics for the year 1900. It is the purpose of the Bureau hereafter to issue these International Reports in decennial periods.

Convention of Italian Instructors.—A Convention of Italian

Instructors of the Deaf was held at Rome August 31 to September 2, 1899. The membership was limited to actual teachers of the deaf. Mr. P. Fornari, Director of the Royal Institution at Milan, presided. The following resolutions relating to methods of instruction were adopted:

1. The Pure Oral method—so called to distinguish it from the Combined method—is the only rational method to give the deaf a practical and good education.

2. The Italian instructors of the deaf, reaffirming the danger of signs in the learning of spoken language, declare that it is impossible to follow the Oral method seriously and efficaciously concurrently with that of signs; they therefore demand the strict application of the eighth resolution of the International Congress of Milan in 1880, by withdrawing pupils newly admitted to school from the contact and sight of their comrades; by suppressing signs—even the signs called natural—through a rigid surveillance, so far as the use of speech is possible, and by placing the pupils in a genuine oral environment.

3. The Italian instructors, being persuaded that a previous teaching of writing, far from being favorable, is injurious to the teaching of pronunciation and to the acquisition of spoken language, but recognizing, nevertheless, the great importance of writing for all the deaf, maintain that the graphic form of language has, for the deaf, merely the same value that it has in a school of children endowed with all their senses, where its place naturally comes after speech in its phonetic form; that is, it is based upon the spoken pronunciation.

Other resolutions urged that competent assistants should be employed; that discipline should not, as a rule, be administered by teachers of industries, workmen, and servants; that the course of study in the Normal School should be reformed; that a diploma should be made obligatory for teachers, and that pupils on leaving school should not be expected to pass the same examinations as pupils from common primary schools.

Steps were taken to organize a permanent association of Italian teachers, and it was decided to have another convention in 1901, at Naples, under the presidency of Mr. E. Scuri, Director of the Naples Institution.

The Derby Conference.—The Proceedings of the Biennial Conference of the British National Association of Teachers of the Deaf, held at the Royal Institution, Friargate, Derby,

England, August 2-4, 1899, have been published in a bound volume of 233 pages with numerous illustrations. Included in the Proceedings are the excellent treatise by Mr. Beattie, of Belfast, on "The Teaching of Language During the First, Second, and Third Years of a Deaf Child's School Life," which was awarded the Braidwood gold medal, and other valuable papers read at the Conference, together with a brief report of the discussions. For this publication the profession is indebted to Mr. W. R. Roe, Headmaster of the Derby Institution, who undertook the labor and the financial responsibility of the work. It may be obtained from Mr. Roe, whose address is given above, at the remarkably low price of two shillings and sixpence (61 cents), post free.

The Lord's Prayer in Signs.—The attempt has several times been made to represent the sign-language more or less fully in graphic form. It is a difficult task, and the result is never entirely satisfactory. One of the most successful experiments in this direction is "The Lord's Prayer in the Sign-Language," recently published by the Connecticut Magazine Co., Hartford, Connecticut. The design is ingenious, the illustrations are artistic, and an Introduction by Mr. Abel S. Clark, of the American School at Hartford, contributes much to the intelligibility of the pictures.

Helen Keller's Examinations.—We have received the following letter from Mr. Wade with respect to the article purporting to be written by Helen Keller, which was published in the *New York World* and quoted from in the November number of the *Annals*, page 474:

To the Editor of the Annals:

SIR: I am glad to say that in a letter to me Helen Keller expressly disavows authorship of the article purporting to be from her that appeared in the *New York World*, saying that a reporter of that paper interviewed her and clothed her sayings in his own words; to which I would add, "drew on his imagination for his facts."

Yours truly,

W. WADE.

OAKMONT, PA., December 8, 1899.

The Deaf-Blind Woman of Ipswich.—Probably the first recorded instance of communication with a deaf-blind person is to be found in Governor John Winthrop's "History of New England," vol. i, page 281. The date of the entry is June 3, 1637:

There was an old woman in Ipswich [Massachusetts], who came out of England blind and deaf, yet her son could make her understand anything, and know any man's name by her sense of feeling. He would write upon her hand some letters of the name, and by other such motions would inform her. This the governour himself had trial of when he was at Ipswich.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

A gentleman of long experience in oral teaching, at present engaged in one of the first schools in the United Kingdom, seeks an opening in the United States. He possesses good government reports and can furnish excellent references. Address P. O. S., care of the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

Mr. J. HEIDSIEK's "Hearing Deaf-Mutes. A contribution toward the Elucidation of the Question of Methods," translated from the German by George W. Veditz, M. A., and published in the *Annals* for April, June, and September of last year, has been reprinted in pamphlet form. Copies may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at 25 cents each, postage included.

"FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH." A course of systematic instruction in language, in four volumes, by Caroline C. Sweet. Price, \$3.84 per dozen. Single copy, 40c.

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Published by the American School, at Hartford, for the Deaf, Hartford, Connecticut.

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF, Established 1847. Complete sets of the *Annals* may now be obtained at \$2.00 a volume. Volumes i, ii, ix, x, xiv to xliv, inclusive, and the last two numbers of volume xiii, are unbound and will be sold separately. Volumes iii and iv, v and vi, vii and viii, xi and xii, together with the first two numbers of volume xiii, have been bound two volumes in one. These will be sold only as bound. Single numbers, from volume xiii, number 3, to the present issue, will be sold at 50 cents each. Indexes to the first twenty, the third ten, and the fourth ten volumes 50 cents each. The first two indexes, bound together in cloth, \$1.00. The three indexes, bound together in cloth, \$1.50. Address the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

Mr. JAMES DENISON's "Manual Alphabet as a Part of the Public-School Course," published in the *Annals* for October, 1886, has been reprinted in pamphlet form, accompanied by the beautiful manual alphabet drawn and engraved from photographs under the direction of Dr. J. C. GORDON. Copies may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at ten cents each, postage included.

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AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

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THE RELIGIOUS, MORAL, SOCIAL, AND ÆSTHETIC NOTIONS OF UNTAUGHT DEAF CHILDREN.*

It is not my plan to attempt any account of the cosmology of the untaught deaf. I do not imagine that they have any,—nor any curiosity about the laws, government, and constitution of the universe.

The little new mind is often pictured as a bundle of inquisitiveness concerning environment. I have slight, but very sure, ground to believe that such interest must be roused,—and may be easily lulled by any lame explanation. For I can remember a time when I took facts as they came, with little curiosity as to their causes or effects, and, to tell the truth, I am still often in the same frame of unthinking acquiescence. People learn, not because they wish to, but because facts are forced upon them through experience, and it is my theory that no one ever learns anything he can help learning.

If the children first entering a school for the deaf have formed any theory of creation, life, and death, I have never found any evidence of it, but I think I have found ample proof that they have as ready an apprehension of,

* Extracted from "The Ninth Year in a Deaf Child's Life," a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, University of Minnesota, 1899.

and as keen a pleasure in, schemes of causation as normal children. What abstractions their minds contain before meeting other minds, we can of course never know, but that they are all ready for the generalizing process seems unquestionable, and that they should have interpreted earlier experiences in the fashion perfectly natural to them seems just as unquestionable.

Every act of thought is an act of generalization or dependent upon one; the materials of generalization are given in experience. The deaf child has all the ordinary avenues of experience but one; if the absence of a language as a vehicle for thought had actually prevented all thinking, we should certainly not expect the capacity for symbolic thought and reason to be present, whereas I think that even the few facts I have collected indicate the common tendency on the part of the most untaught deaf child to classify and generalize his experiences, and to follow syllogistic rules of reasoning,—in a halting fashion to be sure, but, to say the least, in a fashion far beyond the possibilities of the highest brute. That language assists us in thought we know; but that it is not the real and absolute mould of thought seems evident from the fact that not one of us really knows in what language he thinks. We find words—German, English, Latin, etc.—spoken, printed, and written; we find signs, we find visual images, we find mere sounds and unformed, unnamed conceptions; all these we find *in* our thoughts; but no person ever lived who could lay his finger upon any one language and say, “*That* is the vehicle of my thought.”

I know of no method of measuring moral and religious sensitiveness or power of generalization, and I can only assume that a deaf child is capable of thinking what he is capable of expressing. Each one of us knows himself capable of thinking far more than he can express; but we must judge others on the evidence they put into court.

I propose, then, under this head, to give for exactly

what they are worth some incidents and conversations of which I took note during the three years in which I taught first-year deaf classes. I have not approached the children who entered in September, 1898, upon abstract subjects, as I am convinced that any point-blank question would elicit the response: "I don't know; I am new and ignorant."

The first-year children have no set religious instruction, but, in order to relieve the monotony of "cat" and "dog," Sunday morning class work, devoted by the older pupils to Bible study, is occupied with the little ones by picture stories and talking about home. "Sunday clothes" and any other elevating influence which can be introduced assist in inducing a certain exaltation of feeling, which leads to a communicativeness uncommon, I believe, with hearing children.

Some of the conversations here set down (most of which occurred on Sunday mornings) I preserved in my school journals, others I preserved only in memory, but I have set down nothing which I did not preserve.

I wish first to call attention to the *generalizing* instinct (Hume's "manner of thinking") noticeable in the very earliest conversations. That the children's first lessons are of the representative order does not render insignificant the readiness with which they adopt our methods, and extend them further.

Our earliest moral lectures, always with a specific example of the fault to be shunned, follow the time-honored nursery custom of selecting one of the lower animals to represent a particular fault, and seeking by exaggerated pictures—expressions of disgust and antitheses—to render the poor animal and his characteristic as odious as possible. So eagerly do the deaf children seize upon these first metaphors that they seldom spell or write the name of the representative animal without appropriate gesture or facial expression, and the generalizations are extended much further by the learner than by the teacher.

A little girl two months in school spied a number of pennies in a table drawer. She was a model of good behavior all day, and at the close of school asked permission "to give a lecture to the boys and girls." This being granted, she signed, spelling the last word: "Miss Mott has many, many pennies in her box. We have all been very good to-day, but she does not pass them around. Oh, no; she keeps them all herself. P-I-G!"

Two little boys who had been caught in mischief when they should have been asleep reported the supervisor as having been "violent and cross, like a raging lion." The chief culprit told us that "Mr. J. should have been sweet and mild like a lamb or a little bird."

Often linguistic mistakes are perpetrated from the logical extension of a rule.

When one class was told to use the pronoun "I" instead of their own names, they signed their monthly letters "I Jones," "I Brown," etc.

One boy was told to begin his home letter with "Dear Grandfather" instead of "Dear Father and Mother." I explained this before the rest of the class: "Because your father and mother died last year; don't you remember?" When the letters were handed in, three-quarters of them opened with "Dear Grandfather." I inquired why, and was informed that Death had honored nearly every family there represented by entering it in some form; one had lost an uncle, one a brother, one two calves, some only chickens and kittens; but nearly all felt that their houses were entitled to the new honor.

I will record with considerable detail the first reference I made to invisible things with my first class. I remember it particularly, because it was the first trial with my first class, and because I recorded it immediately in my school journal.

I began the lesson with the view of teaching the ordinary domestic names, "Father," "Mother," "Brother,"

and "Sister," also "Home." I drew a rough sketch of a cottage interior, such as I imagined most of the class to have come from. The room contained a woman sitting in a rocking-chair, holding a baby, while several other small children hung around her skirts; before the stove lay a cat and a dog; a man stood in the background. I turned to expound the picture to the children, and found them in a state of great excitement; two were weeping with homesickness; one had started for the door, hat in hand, *en route* for home. All were wildly clapping their breasts in the claim that the domicile was theirs; and complaints poured in to the effect that the man was too small, or that he needed a moustache, or that there should be five instead of four children, or three windows instead of two. The mother and the baby satisfied all parties.

The death of the baby of the class, some time in the second month of the school year, seemed to necessitate the introduction of some conception of life and death less material than the aspect upon which the children dwelt with a fascinated horror. To my surprise, although the children all declared they had never heard my story before, they hailed it with ready acceptation and delight. From that time on, this particular class took great interest in all "spiritual" subjects, and adopted so readily the idea of God, the creator and preserver of the universe, that it seemed to me almost incredible that the conception could be entirely new to them.

On another Sunday morning, the children asked who made them, and, in somewhat realistic pictures, I presented the story of the "breath of life" breathed into the nostrils of a child. This was received as final, and accepted by all but one,—a little cross-eyed girl,—who asked: "Who made Katie and Frank and me?" (Katie and Frank were misshapen cripples.) Upon being informed that God made all three, as well as the other children, she responded: "That makes *three* mistakes; he ought to have been more careful."

When I first gave them the word "God" and said that he made everything, I asked them whether he was good or bad. There was no difference of opinion here. All agreed emphatically that the maker of all things was entirely good. One added that there was a "bad" who lived in the ground. I asked where God lived, and every forefinger pointed upward.

The little cross-eyed girl, not always in a condemnatory mood, announced, two weeks later, that she was "such friends" with God and loved him so much that she looked up into the sky every morning and every evening, hoping to see him; but she never could, and thought it must be because she had such "bad eyes." A boy hastened to inform her: "You can't see God; nobody can; he is only *breath*."

There are, of course, marked temperamental differences among the deaf, as well as other children, in the matter of spirituality. A boy who had conceived an ardent regard for the tiniest girl of the class asked permission, one day, to talk to her; receiving this permission, he signed: "O Carrie, you are so sweet and beautiful, I know God would let you go to Heaven, for a while, some day. Should you like to go?" The child thought she should, and promised to ask—"perhaps next week." Her admirer continued, "Your hands and feet are so sweet and tiny—just like an angel's." The child inspected her members for a moment, and said, "Yes, my feet are small; but I think they look like a *cow's*." The boy then went on to warn her against tight lacing; some of the boys had told him that a certain girl's sickness had been caused by getting strings and tying them tight around her waist: "You must never do that, Carrie; it will make you *weak*." Carrie replied, "Of course not; cows never do."

Upon seeing an orrery, the children asked if it were *true*—that is, a representation of the true. I told them not really, because the pieces of metal which held the

worlds in place were not visible or existent. They asked, "Why, then, do not the worlds tumble?" I told them God watched over them always, never sleeping or turning away his eyes, and held them in their places, moving them in perfect accord. Upon this, a little girl turned to the other children and signed: "God is not much like you. What would happen to the stars if he should begin to stare around, and play with other things, and not attend to his business? You can never pay attention but a little, little minute; but God, always."

As "paying attention" is the absolute requisite of all progress with the deaf, it is preached in season and out of season, and gets to be regarded as the cardinal virtue. A child who had spent several days in the hospital with a hard cold,—epidemic at the time,—reported, upon her return to school, that she "improved" faster than any one else in the hospital, "because, whenever the doctor came in, she paid attention," while the other children were always "looking around."

I soon found that even denominational dissensions were rending my little class, although these were certainly not upon very abstract grounds. A little Jewess was informed by an older brother in the school that she must tear out all the cross-shaped figures in her kindergarten book, for a man was struck dead once for looking at a cross.

A Lutheran boy forswore the faith of his parents, for he said that in his home church they put people in the ground when they died, and did not let them fly to heaven.

Seeing among the older children the contentions, "Catholics are best," or "Protestants are best," they asked me to define the difference between Catholic and Protestant. I told them I could not, as they did not understand enough signs. "Then draw it! draw it! quick! I can't wait; I must know."

But religious schemes are much more readily accepted

than moral codes, and there seems much more reason to believe man an essentially religious than an essentially moral animal. In morals, as in language, the deaf come to us entirely untrained. Like every one else, they find applied morals the most difficult of all branches of study.

I have found little evidence of any real code of conduct among the newly arrived deaf. I suppose they must all have struck some kind of practical balance of behavior with their home circle, but, as a rule, they have only accepted this with no comprehension, no logical acquiescence, and little sympathy which is understanding. The "consciousness of kind" is slight when "*kind*" is absent; frankness is an undeveloped virtue, since no one can be frank amid foreigners. The social qualities of little deaf children really seem hardly more developed than those of an animal.

I have tried the experiment of seating four new arrivals about a table (after their first shyness was worn off) and suddenly dropping something desirable in their midst; instantly it has been seized by eight hands, and the strongest pair retained possession. Even when a child has been better trained at home, this is his immediate attitude toward the enemies whom he finds holding the field in his strange environment.

It is long before this hermit selfishness wears off. There seems no doubt that untrained children are absolutely and unreservedly selfish, without regard to their necessities,—more so than the gregarious animals. This appears from the trifling or negative value of the things they are ready to fight over. A child cried because another's father had a longer name than his; another because his seat-mate was a month older than himself.

When I first gave the class a compound grammatical subject, I said nothing of the order in which the names were to be written. The work of the three boys selected to write the first sentence stood as follows :

George's work : "George, Willie, and Albert eat apples."

Willie's work : "Willie, George, and Albert eat apples."

Albert's work : "Albert, George, and Willie eat apples."

A pitched battle was imminent to compel the common adoption of each of these versions.

Yet these very acts of rivalry are the beginning of sociability, and mark the growing self-consciousness and other-consciousness requisite to morality. Often two children who have wrangled over trifles all through the first months of the term will choose each other for "friend." Jealousy itself is the first stage of respect. In fact, I think we perceive in our line of work, more than in any other department of education, the importance of imitation as an educative factor, and the eventual triumph of the social over the non-social instincts.

The deaf child upon entering school has apparently no caution and no recognition of authority ; violence would instantly be met by violence. Yet, before many weeks have passed, order and docility are completely established, and generosity appears as a dawning motive.

I have never known an instance of morbid cruelty or bullying among the deaf ; the little boys are never afraid of the older ones, as is often the case with the blind ; the original attitude of the deaf child is that of the barbarian—simple brutality.

A little boy once managed to convey this story to the class by halting signs and rude drawings : "I had a very bad little baby sister ; she was just learning to walk ; she crawled out doors ; she stood and began to walk,—like this" (tottering with outstretched arms). "She picked up a stone and threw it at me. It struck my cheek and the blood ran. In three days my baby sister was sick ; she was sick four days ; then she shut her eyes and lay still. They put her in a box. They made a hole in the ground. They put dirt on the box and heaped it up and stamped it down. She can never get out. And I stood

by and watched, and I threw a stone on, too. *The blame be on her !*”

When the death of the little boy before alluded to occurred, early in the term, the general impression seemed ineradicable from his schoolfellows' minds that he died as a retribution for his sins. “He made you so much trouble,” they would reply to my pitying comments; “he ran around all the time; he tipped over his beads; he scratched our papers; he would not write; he did not know anything; he played all the time,—and he sucked some poison berries. *He was new and ignorant. The blame be on him !*”

Then for a time the children seemed to forget him, and when his name was revived in the spring it was with a new accompaniment of toleration and compassion.

Four of the children from that very class, now five years in school, called on me the other day, and asked if I remembered the sweet little baby boy who died when they were all new and ignorant. “He was so pretty, and had such bright eyes, and was always laughing. He skipped about like a little bird, and often tore our work,—but we did not scold him,—he was so little and sweet, and his mother was dead.”

I consider this rapid transition from barbarism to civilization one of the most interesting phases of the deaf child's development. It is the miracle of education that the wild, undisciplined, unfeeling, unthinking, little savages who are brought to the institution every fall become so soon and so quickly organized into an orderly and happy community. No iron discipline is used; every one acquainted with the deaf knows that this would be worse than useless. The characteristic of the revolution is that it is not only a peaceful but a pleasant one. The child, with his inherited predilections for order and discipline, even in his rebellious entrance into an organization, is ready to meet its requirements half way, and to admire its

symmetry as soon as he comprehends it. It is because each deaf child presents in his tutelage an epitome of the socialization and organization of the human race that it is to us a significant chapter in education. (Of course, in the case of children, the revolution is entirely social, and by no means economic, whether or not this was the original basis of human association.)

There is no question but that the deaf of two or three years standing in school—nay, of three months—are more willingly docile, more cheerfully well-behaved, than ordinary school children. They range themselves upon the side of authority, not against it. Limited as may be their reasoning powers, they show a practical acceptation of the truth—which normal children are slow to realize—that government exists for the sake of the governed, and that the individual must yield his whim to the general good. They remain, of course, irritable, selfish, and quarrelsome, like all human beings; not more so, I think. They learn to admire generosity, and to give away things they do not want;* and even sometimes (but this is a very high moral ground for any one) what they do want.†

Before the close of the first year all the solid members of the class have taken their stand for honesty of word and deed. This is still a fragile honor, one easily broken by neglect or unwise discipline, but, perhaps, nearly as firm as that of most eight-year-old children. When open avowal of faults comes on in the order of recognized “niceties,” it is wonderful to see the children vying with each other in confessing all the misdeeds of the year.

* A white-haired lady once visited my schoolroom. Before she had fairly crossed the threshold, she was approached by a little boy with two rabbits’ tails: “You may have these,” he signed; “I am sorry for you because you are so old.”

† When six of this year’s entering class were taken to Minneapolis in the spring, they kept the stay-at-homes constantly in mind, stowing away in their pockets a portion of candy and fruit for those who could not share the enjoyment of the trip.

But the significant point to consider is the growth (visible before our eyes) of a class code of morality. This early recognition of "solidarity" among those upon the same plane is the most interesting feature of the first year in school.

Lessons in manners and conduct, which parents have found impossible to inculcate in the isolated child, are early and easily instilled into a class, as a desideratum of social existence and comfort. The rough, disorderly conduct of others shows the individual himself in a new light and furnishes standards lacking before.

It is no uncommon thing for intelligent parents to bring a child of five or six to the institution and urge his admission under age, on the ground that he is utterly unmanageable at home. The bond of "consciousness of kind" unites these little Ishmaels, steadies their erratic movements, gives them a sense of group dignity and group respect, which the individual was incapable of attaining. Later in the year, when the individual offends against the laws of society gradually formulating in the group, he is instantly condemned by all, and receives the scathing judgment of excommunication: "You are One." This expressive sign means "You are peculiar, solitary, an outcast." It brings to instant repentance a culprit against whom the teacher has no weapons.

But the teacher steps into a newly created throne, and becomes the first embodiment of sovereignty ever recognized by any of his charges. If he is wise enough to shape and follow the growing public standard of conduct, rather than try to force it, he will find himself absolutely unassailable in his position of exponent of the law. Almost no situation could arise, in the latter half of the year, in which the teacher would not receive the instant approbation of every member of the class (except the creators of the situation).

Of course the conception of a virtue develops earlier

than its application to oneself. It would seem that by the time a child begins to accuse others of "lying" and "stealing" he might be held accountable for his own lapses, but this does not follow. Indeed, it is not our judgment of others which is modelled upon our own innate sense of right and wrong, but rather the opposite, and in a school for the deaf, as in the world, we define vice and virtue in reference to the acts of others and slowly find a parallel in our own acts.*

It is asserted by many who know the deaf well that, even though they undoubtedly show ample respect for law and authority,† they remain through life unsympathetic, selfish, and grasping. But those who know them best deny this, and assert that the deaf, like every one else, give their love and sympathy where they give their confidence, viz., to other deaf. They are clannish, it is true, but we are all clannish, only that some have larger clans than others.

I make no claim that the deaf ever become truly altruistic outside their own ranks, but within that pale they are loyal, self-sacrificing, and affectionate, having all the social virtues fully developed.

One of the most suggestive phases of the status of uneducated deaf children has been to me their æsthetic preferences. And it is in this field, as well as that of morals, that I feel we may learn from their unconscious self-revelations something of the development of the normal human being. If there be a standard of absolute

* The twenty-month-old daughter of a friend of mine was very ill-behaved at the table until a little sister, six months younger, was adopted into the family. At the first meal the new arrival cried and fussed disagreeably. The older child watched her fixedly for a few minutes, then climbed down from her chair and administered a sound slap to the offending baby. She, herself, was very careful of her table manners thereafter.

† I have even known a deaf man to check his horse upon encountering at the entrance of a bridge the sign "Ten Dollars Fine," etc.

beauty, whose elements everywhere appeal to the per-
 cipient human subject, I can see no reason why the deaf
 child of eight, thrown back on nature for companionship,
 and with ample time to develop his dawning likes and
 dislikes, should not have his full appreciation of such
 beauty. And I have heard the deaf called naturally
 æsthetic. In fact, their pleasure in looking about, in
 seeing a succession of lively images passing before their
 eyes and significant events transpiring about them, is
 very evident to a casual observer; but, upon closer ob-
 servation, it becomes still more evident that much of this
 interest is in reading mysteries—finding out the meaning
 of things, and this means the *human* meaning of things.
 In riding or walking with the class which entered last
 fall, I found it impossible to arouse any response when I
 pointed to blue sky, white snow, green grass; but the
 instant a sign of human agency appeared I found them
 all excitement. “Who made it?” “What for?” “When?”
 etc., etc., etc., etc. In fact, their intellectual interest is
 much easier to arouse than their æsthetic interest.

I provided bright picture-books for my first class, but
 found them quite meaningless to the children, while
 mercantile catalogues filled with cuts of all the neces-
 saries of life were caught up like fairy stories.

I was never able to perceive that the children had any
 choice of weather,—that is, between bright and dull,
 until they found themselves prohibited from going out in
 the damp. Of course, to the educated taste, all aspects
 of nature and all atmospheres are beautiful, but there is
 a preliminary stage of culture to which striking contrasts
 and brilliant coloring are the marks of beauty. I cannot
 ascertain that children, left to their own devices for the
 first eight years of life, have entered upon this stage of
 æsthetic discrimination. Perhaps no child has. Chil-
 dren and uncultivated persons are dissatisfied with a pic-
 ture which does not tell them a story,—as though they

sought to satisfy an intellectual curiosity rather than an æsthetic craving.

I have seen elaborate reports upon the color and form preferences of children, but my own experiments in this line have rendered me somewhat skeptical of the value of such records.

My school journal for the year 1894-'95 contained the following: "Red is the favorite color with the deaf; I shall get most of the kindergarten materials of that color next year." In my journal for 1895-'96 I find: "I made the mistake this year of thinking that the children preferred red to any other color, and laid in a large stock of weaving material in red; but the very first week an influential girl chose a blue mat, and blue has been the color *par excellence* all the year."

The third year I amused myself with an experiment. I furnished the children, all around, with kindergarten materials of various hues, only took care not to give any one green. I kept two or three green cards in my hand, while distributing, and took officious pains now and then to hastily cover them with other colors. At last, when some one asked for green, I evinced great reluctance to part with that color, and finally intimated that there was only a "little, little" of it. Finally, I bestowed a specimen upon the oldest pupil and best scholar and quickest worker in the class, and denied it to any one else. Before that hour drew to a close I had instilled into that particular class a passion for the color green, so lively that I doubt if it be yet lulled to indifference.*

* The color preferences of the present first-year class are in the following order: Red, red, purple, purple, yellow, green, pink, brown, gray, orange. The first four started out with the idea of mating colors with cronies; the remaining six conceived the notion that it would be better for each to choose a separate color.

I also took the color preferences, later, in a hearing eight-year-old class. *White* received the highest number of votes; then *yellow*, then *black*, then *red*, then *purple*, then *pink*, etc., etc.

I feel that here we find the key to æsthetic preferences, even if we be not able to trace the connection. Rarity and fashion constitute beauty. I do not mean that the preferences of *all* children are *all* swayed by jealousy; this primary emotion happens to be the strongest social factor with our hitherto sequestered charges. But I think that the social instinct is far stronger than the æsthetic, and originally controls the latter.

With the deaf the first use of the signs "pretty," "nice," "beautiful," "polite," etc., comes in the actual process of making things. Here the choice of colors and shapes is practically forced upon the worker; then discussion arises as to the wisdom of the choice, and all tastes and differences follow of themselves. So I should say that *art*, rather than *nature*, gives rise to æsthetic preferences.

I have had little opportunity to compare the æsthetic development of deaf with normal children. My opinion is that they are both in much the same undeveloped state, excepting that hearing children have imbibed some ready-made opinions from their elders; but they gaze unmoved upon the most revolting spectacles and seem to have no idea of ugliness. A child always seems to admire his nurse, no matter how plain she may be. Worms, toads, etc., so repulsive to the educated taste, are often exceedingly attractive to children. (In fact, I think the æsthetic capabilities of the sense of touch are developed before those of sight. A baby shows fear or pleasure in touching a yielding surface long before he takes notice of colors.)

I should not say, however, that children, whether deaf or hearing, are æsthetically indifferent, although they appear unconscious of many of the most obvious elements of beauty. There is one source of æsthetic enjoyment unfailing in its action upon the young, and that is *life*, in any form, whether animal or vegetable. In fact, I believe

this sympathy with and interest in other living things to be the real source of our ideas of the beautiful, and even this may be called but an aspect of the social instinct. An infant may have no particular choice of colors, but as soon as he begins to realize faintly that grass and trees grow and change he begins to dream of them. The deaf are no exception to this rule; the living things at home are all catalogued in memory. Picking flowers occupies all the leisure hours of the smaller children from the disappearance of the snow until the close of school.

To sum up, then, I should say that the untaught deaf, like other neglected children, show little regard for beauty in itself. They are not particularly attracted by bright colors or graceful forms until they find their public opinion and are influenced thereby to formulate their æsthetic preferences. At first they enjoy utilities more than ornamentation, and it is only by trying to make beautiful things that they seem to learn to value the ideal beauty. Even in this respect, however, I believe them not much inferior to normal children.

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SCHOOLROOM AIDS.

CORRECTING papers is one of the most tiresome of a teacher's duties and oftentimes apparently one of the least profitable. Papers may be collected and corrected out of school and returned to the pupil the next day without comment. Again, papers may be corrected by the teacher in the presence of the pupil. Or the teacher may indicate the errors in the presence of the pupil and have the pupil correct them as they go along. The teacher might correct the papers after school and indicate the errors in the usual way by underlining and the caret and require the

pupil to make the necessary corrections after the paper is returned to him. Again, the teacher might mark sentences as wrong and require the pupil to search out the errors with no other guide. The last named method seems to partake somewhat of the nature of solving a puzzle. Another method is for the teacher to indicate the errors by numbers and then the pupil corrects his work by referring to a "Correction Chart," in which all of the common errors are numbered. This method is used in the Illinois* and California schools.†

When the teacher corrects all of the mistakes and returns the paper without comment and the pupil looks over the corrections in a perfunctory way, the exercise is manifestly of slight benefit to the pupil as far as the correcting of the paper is concerned. If the pupil copies the corrected lesson it might not be altogether profitless.

We must do what is best for the pupil in the shortest possible time. "Art is long and time is fleeting." Frequently there must be a recitation in connection with the preparation of the written lesson, and with the explanation of the new lesson the scanty allowance of time is largely, if not wholly, appropriated. Then, after the lesson papers of the previous day are corrected by the pupils, they are returned again to the teacher for him to see if the scholar succeeded in correcting all of the mistakes. In many cases the pupil will overlook or fail to see a varying number of needed corrections or, as more frequently happens, he will fail to make the right corrections. The teacher has to go through the exercise and gather up the loose ends, so to speak. This is, perhaps, the ideal method of correcting papers, if time is no object.

The pupil should do as much of the correcting as possible. He should not only understand the correct form of a sentence, but his mistakes should be impressed upon

* See the *Annals*, vol. xliii, p. 92.

† See the *Annals*, vol. xliv, pp. 238-242.

his mind in such a way that he will not repeat them. In correcting the following sentence, for example : "He is [^] [^] living stay here and [^] one year," it avails but little to use the caret and to underline as above, because in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred the deaf pupil who would write such a sentence would not be able to straighten it out independently. It is obvious that he cannot do all of the correcting even when the way is pointed out. Judicious aid must be given where and in the proportion that it is necessary.

The methods used by the Jacksonville and California schools seem to be excellent ones. Before I had seen an exposition of them in the *Annals*, I had devised the following to suit my needs :

o. l. = omitted letter(s).

^ = omitted word.

t. = tense.

n. = new word.

N. = number.

C. = capital letter.

s. = small letter.

p. = punctuation.

sp. = spelling.

tr. = transpose.

o. = out.

() = rewrite sentence.

c. = careless.

+ = too many letters.

Corrections were indicated with blue pencil. The symbols and abbreviations were used in this way :

The monkey and The Coal.

c.

n.

(The man, who lived near the track railroad, had

n.

tr.

^

monkey When the long coal trains went by, the monkey

p.

would climb the telgraph poles and make face at the
trainmen, so that he would threw coals at the it.

At the beginning of the term, the pupils copied the correction marks into their notebooks and very soon became thoroughly familiar with them. By means of this chart all of the more common errors were quickly discovered and corrected by the pupils and the amount of time which was required to correct the papers after their return to the teacher's desk was reduced to a minimum.

In teaching elementary grammar I have found the following outline helpful :

<i>Part of Speech.</i>	<i>Meaning.</i>	<i>Abbreviation.</i>	<i>Example.</i>
1. Noun	Name-word	n.	man
2. Pronoun	Word used for a name	pro.	he
3. Verb	Action-word	v.	work
4. Adjective	What kind of word	adj.	sweet
5. Article	Limiting-word	art.	a, an, the
6. Adverb	How-when-where words	adv.	quickly
7. Preposition	Relation-word	prep.	to
8. Conjunction	Joining-word	c.	and
9. Interjection	Feeling-word	i.	Oh !

These short, live definitions of the parts of speech have apparently given my pupils a much clearer idea than such long, time-honored definitions as that a verb is a word which affirms or predicates something of some person or thing, or a verb is a part of speech which expresses being, action or the suffering of action, and an adverb is a word which is used to modify the sense of a verb, participle, adjective, or another adverb; and, again, an interjection is a word used to express some strong or sudden emotion of the mind. That these things are so cannot be denied; however, I am inclined to the opinion that much of the dislike for grammar which used to be so noticeable in the common schools was due to the dry definitions therein contained. I have seen pupils who could recite all of the book definitions of the parts of speech, word

for word, but who were hopelessly mixed when they were asked to name the parts of speech in a simple sentence. Theirs was the shadow and not the substance, the shell and not the meat. We must keep in mind that especially for the deaf the simpler, shorter and more condensed we can make our definitions, the more satisfactory will be the results obtained, and, moreover, we shall be working in accordance with the well-known pedagogical principle of going from the simple to the complex.

It is not claimed that the word-definitions of the parts of speech given in the above outline are all-comprehensive, but it is maintained that with these as a guide the pupil can pick out the right parts of speech with unusual facility, and that he understands and can tell why a word is a certain part of speech. Of course, in the advanced classes and the college preparatory grade a more extensive knowledge and preparation is not only necessary but desirable.

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A WASHINGTON'S BIRTHDAY CELEBRATION BY THE PRIMARY DEPARTMENT.

FIRE^d by patriotism, and admiration of the "first American," each one was anxious to have a share, however small, in the exercises commemorative of his birthday. Accordingly, a small speaking part was assigned to each child, but in order that every one—including those with poor sight, of slower intellects, and also the many strangers not used to the children's voices—might not miss a word, everything was presented in written or printed form immediately after it was spoken.

The first thing was a concert exercise, led by one of the teachers. The little verse was taken from the *Youth's*

Companion. It had been clearly printed on the black-board before the children assembled :

Run the flags up every one,
The old red, white, and blue,
All to honor Washington,
Good and brave and true.

The next exercise was given by eleven children, each one holding a strip of blue cardboard, containing what he had to say painted upon it in fancy white letters. A banner, with eleven holes punched one under the other, hung at a convenient height, and as each child made his recitation he hung his card on the banner, there being a hook in the centre of each for the purpose. These suspension hooks may be purchased all ready to gum upon cardboard or any light material.

When complete, the banner bore these devices, which form an acrostic upon the name :

We want to be like Washington,

**Wise
Active
Strong
Honest
Industrious
Neat
Good
Truthful
Obedient
Noble.**

One of the very youngest pupils recited in simple language the time-honored tale of the Cherry Tree. An obliging friend had done in charcoal a spirited sketch of the scene, and after the recitation the little girl quickly wrote out the story in so handsome a hand as to elicit words of surprise and admiration from the visitors present, to whom the sight of little children writing quickly and well presented the charm of novelty, while the parents listened with pleased and hopeful interest to the fluent speech.

The story is herewith submitted to show its extreme simplicity :

When George Washington was a little boy he had a new hatchet. He cut his father's cherry tree with the hatchet. His father came and looked at the tree. He said, " Who cut my tree ? " Little George said, " I cannot tell a lie ; I did, father."

The next feature was a brief history of his life. This was entitled "About Washington," and was recited by twelve pupils, each one of whom took the platform in turn, said his little piece, wrote it out, and stepped off.

The complete result stood as follows :

ABOUT WASHINGTON.

Washington was born in 1732.

He went to school until he was sixteen years old.

Then he became a surveyor and measured wild land for three years.

After that he was a soldier and fought in many battles.

There was a long war between England and America.

Washington was the Commander-in-Chief of the American army.

He made all the English soldiers leave America.

The American people were grateful to Washington.

They made him the first President of the United States.

Washington's home was at Mount Vernon.

He died there in 1799.

Washington was the Father of his Country.

The large school picture of Washington had been taken from the wall and placed upon an easel at the front of the hall. A frame of cardboard, having an oval opening through which the picture was visible, was next placed upon the easel, and having slits at the right intervals it was easy to arrange a would-be laurel wreath about the dignified head of our great hero. Each one had a good-sized leaf cut out of green cardboard and bearing upon it in printed characters his tribute, which he first told us, then inserted it in the frame, so that the final effect was somewhat like the desired one.

A leader asked, " What do we honor Washington for ? "

1st leaf. His obedient boyhood.

2d leaf. His honor and truth.

3d leaf. His strength and gentleness.

4th leaf. His courtesy to rich and poor.

5th leaf. His loyalty to his country.

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6th leaf. His love and sympathy for his suffering soldiers.

7th leaf. His dignity and self-restraint.

8th leaf. His courage and reverence.

9th leaf. His wisdom and power.

Another concert recitation, followed by the salute to the flag, came next.

I love the name of Washington,
I love my country too ;
I love the flag, the dear old flag,
Of red and white and blue.

The concert recitations and the salute were given standing. During the first part of the salute the right hand was raised to the forehead, palm down ; at the words "one flag" all pointed to the flag. The particular form used is the simple one so widely taught in our great public schools,—“I give my hand and my heart to my country ; one country, one language, one flag !”

This closed the exercises, which had lasted just an hour. About half an hour a day for the four days immediately preceding the celebration had been devoted to explaining the language and practising the speaking of the pieces.

Every one present, upon entering the hall, had been presented with a badge of blue cardboard tied with yellow ribbon (the Continental colors). These badges were shaped like a three-cornered hat as it looks when hanging on a wall ; in the crown was a small picture of Washington. The pictures were obtained for the asking at the *Youth's Companion* office. They come in sheets, ten on a sheet, and are easily cut out.

On another occasion badges were made of white cardboard shaped like a hatchet. These also bore a small picture of Washington on the blade, the dates of his birth and death, and on the handle the legend, “I cannot tell a lie.” These little souvenirs are carefully preserved in remembrance of a happy day, and also serve as reminder of the facts and sentiments connected with the great name of Washington.

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CAN ANTHROPOLOGICAL EXAMINATIONS
SERVE AS A BASIS FOR THE SELEC-
TION OF YOUNG DEAF-MUTES
WITH REGARD TO THEIR
EDUCABILITY?*

SOME experimental studies have been undertaken at different times to inquire whether intellectual degenerates are numerous among the deaf, and whether they form a considerable proportion of the sum total of children affected with deafness.

These studies were intended to determine the psychical value, the intellectual aptness, of deaf-mutes, by means of the more or less frequent occurrence of physical malformations which characterize, in general, the state of degeneracy,—malformations of which the principal are : dissymmetry and deformation of the cranium and of the face ; malformation of the external ear, of the soft palate, of the palatine arch ; irregularities in the teeth, malformation of the hands, abnormal proportions of the fingers, etc.

Broca, Lombroso, Cella, Bersengue, Ricardi, Albertotti, may be cited among the first experimenters who observed deaf-mutes and noted among them a certain frequency of physical anomalies.

In an essay entitled “ Contribution to the Anthropology of Deaf-Mutism ” (1894), Rossi, studying comparatively, at Siena, forty-four young deaf-mutes and forty-four children from an orphan asylum, and confining his studies *exclusively to the head*, found that the difference in the number of marks of degeneracy was inconsiderable. But it should be mentioned here that the orphans in question were foundlings, issue for the most part of illegitimate

* From the *Revue Générale de l'Enseignement des Sourds-Muets* for July, 1899. Translated by MAX MARTIN, B. A., Instructor in Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

unions, and born under unfavorable conditions which predisposed them to degeneracy.

Lastly, from the physiological point of view, Ottolenghi, quite recently, observed among deaf-mutes only unimportant defects in sensibility.

It was in consequence of these various studies that Dr. Féré called attention anew to these facts by proposing to make physical malformations one of the bases of the selection of pupils in regard to their educability in schools for the deaf.

Dr. Féré's proposition corresponds exactly to one of the principal problems of educators of the deaf, stated notably by Mr. Banchi, Director of the Royal Institution at Siena. Opposing the admission of unintelligent pupils into our schools, Mr. Banchi expressed himself in these terms: "Great injustice is thus committed towards the better endowed deaf-mutes, who remain deprived of all intellectual culture in consequence of the lack of room in the educational institutions; the fair fame of our institutions is compromised, and the way is paved for an easy victory for the enemies of the Oral method. I entertain no illusions concerning the difficulty that the examination of new pupils presents and the yet greater difficulty of drawing the line between the children who cannot be accepted and those who ought to be admitted. However, without having recourse to science, can we not profit by certain signs, such as the conformation of the cranium, the greater or less brightness of the eyes, etc.? Will not these afford sufficient data in the greater number of cases?"*

In studying the experimental researches of Dr. Féré, we propose to show what utility can be expected, for the selection of young deaf-mutes as pupils, from data of an *anthropological* nature.

We believe ourselves authorized to do this by the

* From *l' Educazione dei Sordomuti*.

humble collaboration which we have had the privilege of rendering Dr. Féré during the researches in question.

With the permission of the Minister of the Interior, Dr. Féré examined 194 young deaf-mutes who were inmates of the National Institution at Paris, in 1895-1896. These deaf-mutes, whose ages varied from seven to twenty years, were passed in review dressed in bathing tights. The same anatomical features having been studied on all these subjects, the figures obtained permit a comparison of the different categories which have been established.

Dr. Féré has arranged a table indicating the percentage of malformations observed according to the intelligence of the subjects and the time at which deafness appeared. It should be said that the intelligence of these deaf-mutes was determined, independently of Dr. Féré, by pedagogical notes made by the instructors of the National Institution and based on the intellectual aptness of which these subjects have given proof during their course of instruction.

These pedagogical notes divide the 194 subjects examined into six classes, with regard to their intellectual condition.

The average number of malformations for each individual of the six pedagogical classes is interesting; it shows, in fact, that *the feebler the intellect, the greater is the number of malformations.*

TABLE I.

Groups according to intellectual condition.	Number of subjects.	Average number of malformations.
Excellent	33	3.84
Good	38	3.89
Fair.....	53	4.20
Mediocre.....	42	4.57
Weak.....	19	4.84
Very Weak.....	9	5.44

TABLE II.—Table arranged by Dr. Féré.

		PERCENTAGE OF MALFORMATIONS.									
		MALFORMATIONS.					ACCORDING TO THE INTELLIGENCE OF THE DEAF-MUTES.				
							ACCORDING TO THE TIME AT WHICH DEAFNESS OCCURRED.				
		Excellent.	Good.	Fair.	Mediocre.	Weak.	Very weak.	Con- genital.	Adven- tuous.		
1	Macrocephalic.....										
2	Microcephalic.....			3.77	2.38		44.44	1.07			
3	Acrocephalic.....			3.77				5.36	1.03		
4	Bulging forehead.....	3.03	5.24	3.77	4.76			2.14			
5	Deformation of the coronal suture.....		2.67	1.88				3.22	3.09		
6	" lambdoid suture.....			1.88	2.38			1.07	1.03		
7	Cranio-facial asymmetry.....		2.67	13.20	9.62	21.05		2.14			
8	Ogival palatine arch.....	24.24	31.57	32.07	33.33	47.36	22.22	7.52	8.24		
9	Palatine torus.....	15.15	15.78	18.86	4.76	26.30	11.11	35.43	26.80		
10	Deviation of the nasal septum.....				2.38	5.26		9.86	19.57		
11	Cleft in the palatine arch.....		2.67		2.38			2.14			
12	Absence of the normal chevauchement of the superior maxillary.....							1.07	1.03		
13	Atrophy and recedence of the inf. maxillary.....	9.09	13.15	7.54	21.42	5.26	11.11	9.06	6.18		
14	One-sided atrophy of the inferior maxillary.....	12.12	5.24	9.43	9.52	15.78	33.33	12.90	9.27		
15	Lemurine apophysis, bilateral.....	3.03		3.77		5.26		2.14	1.03		
16	" " on right side.....	21.21	21.06	26.41	21.42	21.05	33.33	23.65	21.64		
17	" " on left side.....			3.77				1.07			
18	Double row of upper teeth.....	3.03						1.07			
19	Microdont.....	3.03						1.07			
20	Teeth irregular in both jaws.....			1.86							
21	" " the lower jaw.....	12.12	2.67	11.32	14.26	10.52	11.11	8.60	9.27		
22	Aperture bet'n middle incisors of upper jaw.....	3.03	10.52	11.32	16.06	5.26	11.11	1.07	1.03		
								16.06	4.12		

[illegible]

TABLE II—Continued.

PERCENTAGE OF MALFORMATIONS.									
MALFORMATIONS.					ACCORDING TO THE INTELLIGENCE OF THE DEAF-MUTES.			ACCORDING TO THE TIME AT WHICH DEAFNESS OCCURRED	
		Excellent.	Good.	Fair.	Mediocre.	Weak.	Very weak.	Con- genital.	Adven- titious.
58	Ears hairy.....	2.38
59	Microphthalmia, left eye.....	5.26	1.07
60	Epicanthus.....
61	Strabismus.....	2.67	4.76	5.26	4.30
62	Congenital cataract, right eye.....	1.88	1.03
63	Chromatic asymmetry of the iris.....	3.03	2.67	3.77	3.22	1.03
64	Corectopia, both eyes.....	27.27	25.31	16.98	23.80	26.31	22.22	21.50	20.61
65	.. left eye.....	5.66	10.52	11.11	3.22	3.09
66	Scoliosis.....	6.06	2.38	15.78	11.11	3.22	2.06
67	Lordosis.....	3.03	5.24	5.66	22.22	3.22	3.09
68	Shoulders tapering.....	3.03	1.88	1.07	1.03
69	Thorax semi-cylindrical.....	6.06	10.52	11.32	11.90	5.26	11.11	8.60	9.27
70	.. funnel-shaped.....	3.03	5.24	9.52	4.30	3.09
71	.. keel-shaped.....	2.67	3.77	2.38	4.30
72	.. flattened.....	2.38	1.07	1.03
73	.. asymmetrical.....	3.03	2.38	1.07
74	Deviation of the xiphoid appendix.....	2.38	1.07	1.03
75	Hernia of the median line.....	1.07	1.03
76	Umbilical hernia.....	1.88	1.07	1.03

		2.67	5.20	11.11	1.07	1.03
81	Right index finger too short.....	1.03
82	Left index finger too short.....	1.03
83	Index finger twisted on its axis.....	2.06
84	Ring finger = middle finger, left hand.....	3.03	1.07	1.03
85	Middle finger bent inward.....	1.07	2.06
86	Oligodactylic, both hands.....	6.06	31.57	44.44	16.12	10.39
87	“ right hand.....	5.26	3.22	0.93
88	“ left hand.....	11.11	6.36	8.24
89	Little finger too short, both hands.....	9.09	12.90	9.27
90	“ right hand.....	15.15	15.78	2.06
91	“ left hand.....	5.26	2.06
92	Little toe of right foot bent inward.....	6.06	5.36	1.03
93	Genu valgum, both legs.....	3.03	1.07	4.12
94	Flat foot.....	3.03	15.78	11.11	4.30	1.03
95	Foot oligodactylic.....	6.06	22.22	4.30	4.12
96	Great toe prehensile.....	1.07	2.06
97	“ abnormally long.....	11.11	4.30
98	Second toe much longer than the first, both feet.....	11.11	1.07
99	“ “ “ left foot.....	3.03	5.26	1.07	2.06
100	“ “ smaller than the third, both feet.....	2.14
101	“ “ “ right foot.....	3.22	1.03
102	“ “ “ left foot.....	3.03	5.26	1.07
103	Third toe smaller than the fourth, both feet.....	3.03	5.26	1.03
104	Little toe abnormally small, left foot.....	2.14	3.09
105	Second toe bent outward.....	3.03	1.07	1.03
106	Second and third toes bent.....	3.03	10.52	2.14	2.06
107	Fifth toes bent inward.....	1.07	1.03
108	Second and third toes syndactylic.....	3.03	3.22
109	Pigmentary spots.....	27.27	25.78	22.22	17.20	14.42
110	Soft tumors.....	22.22	4.30	3.09
111	Ichthyosis.....	11.11	2.14	1.03
112	Infantile.....	1.03
113	Dwarfish.....	1.03

The last two columns of Table II sum up the proportion of anomalies of the 190 subjects concerning whom there was information relative to the time at which deafness appeared.

The average number of anomalies for these two classes is furnished by the following table :

TABLE III.

	Number of subjects.	Average number of anomalies.
Deafness congenital.....	93	4.49
“ adventitious.....	97*	3.28

It is proper to observe here that the congenitally deaf show the greater number of marks of degeneracy. As we shall see from the pedagogical notes, they are also, in general, less intelligent.

TABLE IV.—*Subjects classified with regard to intelligence.*

	Excellent.	Good.	Fair.	Mediocre.	Weak.	Very weak.
Deafness congenital....	14	15	21	27	9	7
“ adventitious...	20	20	33	15	8	1

From these last two tables it appears that congenital deafness is generally accompanied by more numerous physical malformations and a greater intellectual weakness than non-congenital deafness.

Moreover, it will be observed that as a general rule the weaker the intellect, the more numerous are the marks of degeneracy.

“From these two general conclusions,” says Dr. Féré, “one might be tempted to infer, as a practical deduction,

*It will be remarked that the present statistics make the number of the congenitally deaf and the adventitiously deaf almost equal.

the impossibility of advanced education for congenital deaf-mutes and for others of the deaf who are most deformed. This deduction, however, is not justified, for among non-congenital deaf-mutes and among those who rank highest from an intellectual point of view we find a certain number of individuals who have more than the average number of physical malformations, while among those deaf from birth and who are of the lowest order of intelligence are found some individuals better formed physically than the average. We are compelled to conclude, then, that if the anthropological examination is to be of any use in judging of educability, this examination must correspond with data of another class."

These data of another class, to which Dr. Féré here refers, are those furnished by the pedagogical observation—that is to say, the personal estimate by the instructor to whom the subjects admitted temporarily* into an institution for deaf-mutes have been entrusted.

From this learned and accurate study of Dr. Féré's we may conclude that the anthropological examination cannot constitute the sole basis of selection of deaf-mutes with a view to educability and that even, in certain cases, the anthropological data may lead into error as regards the estimate of the intellectual condition of the subjects.

On the other hand, returning to the statistics above given of classification according to intelligence—a classification established by pedagogical notes apart from any anthropological examination—and confining ourselves to generalities, we arrive at this other conclusion, of great importance, that out of 194 deaf-mutes, 124 are classed as having an intelligence, excellent, good, or fair,—that is to say, as being capable of obtaining real benefit from instruction,—which is a proportion of 64 capable subjects out of

*In France, where the system of temporary admissions is practised, the period of pedagogical observation can be extended to two years for doubtful subjects.

100 deaf-mutes. (This is said without contesting in the least the right to instruction of the 36 per cent. of deaf-mutes whose intelligence is reported as mediocre or weak, who constitute what are called backward pupils, and with whom it is proper perhaps to insist especially upon industrial training.)

AUGUSTE BOYER,

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REPORT OF A VISIT TO THE UNITED STATES AND THE BRITISH ISLES TO STUDY THE EDUCATION OF DEAF CHILDREN AND OTHER MATTERS PERTAINING TO THE DEAF, MARCH 17 TO JULY 15, 1899.*

I BEGAN my journey March 17, on the steamship *Angelo*, and reached Hull on the 19th and Liverpool the 20th. On the 22d I left Liverpool on the steamer *Majestic* and arrived at New York the 29th. I did not, however, get ashore until the following day, and then I remained in New York until April 12. During this time I visited three schools for the deaf—the Wright-Humason School, on West 76th Street, the New York Institution, Washington Heights, and the Institution for Improved Instruction, on Lexington Avenue. I had, besides, conferences in New York with Dr. Alexander Graham Bell and Mr. David Greene, the former principal of the Lexington Avenue School, who has a private school near Madison Square. In order to become acquainted with outside work for the deaf, I attended services at St. Ann's Church, on West 148th Street, where Dr. Thomas Gallaudet con-

* This Report is addressed to the Royal Ecclesiastical Department of the Norwegian Government, by which the author, a highly educated deaf man, was commissioned to make the visit. The Report is translated from the Norwegian by OLOF HANSON, M. A., of Faribault, Minnesota.

ducted the service, and also took part in a meeting which was held in the society room attached to the church. Among the more prominent deaf whom I met in New York I will mention Mr. E. A. Hodgson, M. A., editor of the *Deaf-Mutes' Journal*, and Mr. Thomas F. Fox, M. A., Associate-Principal of the New York Institution.

On April 12 I left New York and went to Hartford, Connecticut, to visit the American School for the Deaf, the first school in the United States, founded in 1817 by Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet. The next day I went from there to Northampton, Massachusetts, and spent some time at the Clarke School, established in 1867, the oldest still existing Oral school in the United States. On the 16th my journey was continued to Rochester, New York, where the Western New York Institution is situated, and after two days' stay I went direct to Chicago, where I arrived April 19:

In Chicago I found the day-school system far more developed than I had expected, so it was not a great loss that lack of time compelled me to abandon the trip I had planned to the day-schools in Wisconsin.

In Chicago I visited one of the four remaining Manual schools, the largest of the seven Oral schools, and the private Oral school of the Superintendent of all the Chicago day-schools, Miss McCowen. I also conferred with the Rev. Philip Hasenstab, with the chemist Mr. George T. Dougherty, with Mr. Oscar Regensburg, owner of a printing establishment, and with others of the most intelligent deaf, and was present at a meeting of the Society of the Deaf in the rooms connected with the First Methodist Episcopal Church, at the corner of Washington and Clark streets.

On April 30 I left Chicago and went to Columbus, Ohio, to visit a school which on the whole continues to use what may be called the old American method, and from there, on May 1, to Philadelphia, where I arrived on the 2d,

and visited the schools at Mount Airy and Bala. Here I had opportunity to visit All Souls' Church for the deaf, which also has society rooms.

I arrived at Washington on May 7, and remained until the 11th. While there I attended Presentation Day exercises at Gallaudet College. The President, Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, as well as the Rev. Dr. Gallaudet in New York, is a son of the founder of the Hartford School, after whom the College is named. I also visited the Columbia Institution, which is under the same management. Finally I visited the Volta Bureau and was shown through by the Superintendent, the Hon. John Hitz.

From Washington I went through Philadelphia and New York to Boston, where I arrived May 14. Here I visited the Horace Mann School for the Deaf, so named in memory of the organizer of public schools in Massachusetts, who, in the forties, was the first to propose the introduction of the German Oral method in America. This is a day-school supported by the city. My visit to the Perkins Institute for the Blind was fruitless, as the superintendent, Mr. Anagnos, unfortunately was absent. On May 16 I called upon Miss Helen Keller and her constant companion, Miss Sullivan. Herewith my tour in America was ended. On May 20 I reached New York again, and on the 23d sailed on the *Servia* for Europe.

As will be seen, I had only time to make short visits to the various places, and even in New York, where I was altogether seventeen days—a large part of which was devoted to planning my tour and to making preparations for the return—and in Chicago, where I spent eleven days, I found the time very limited. The great distances in America, and not least the distances within the cities themselves (it required more than an hour to go from my lodging in Brooklyn to one of the schools, the New York Institution, and two of the schools I visited in Chicago were located an hour and a half from my stopping place,

which in that city is not an unusual distance), make two months in America hardly equivalent to more than half of this time in a European country of the size of Germany or France. On this account I was compelled to give up a visit to Wisconsin, and decline invitations to Michigan, to Minneapolis and Faribault in Minnesota, to Santa Fe, New Mexico, to Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and to strike out Jacksonville, Illinois, from my projected plan.

On June 1 I reached Liverpool on the Steamship *Servia*, and visited the school for the deaf located in that city, and the Liverpool Institute, on Princess Avenue, which is a combination of a church and meeting place for the deaf in the city. At the former place I met Her Majesty's Senior Chief Inspector, Mr. T. King. I talked with Mr. Geo. F. Healey, and with the missionary, Mr. Armour, about matters pertaining to the deaf.

On June 3 I went from Liverpool to London, where I remained until the 26th, except for a two days' visit to the Margate Institution. During my stay in London I went twice to the church for the deaf, St. Saviour's, on Oxford Street, which also has a room for meetings, and I had conversations with the pastor, Mr. Gilby, and a number of the leading deaf, among them Mr. S. Bright Lucas, Mr. J. Hipkins, and Mr. W. Trood. The schools I visited were the Training College, which is a combination of a school for the deaf and a training school for teachers; the Jews' Home on Wandsworth Common; and Mr. Schoentheil's private school on St. Mark's Road, Notting Hill. Besides, I had a conference with Mr. W. Nelson, Superintendent of the London Board Schools for the Deaf. My visit to the Educational Department was without profit because Mr. T. King, whom, as before mentioned, I met in Liverpool, was still absent on a tour of inspection.

From London I went to Leicester and visited the school in that place and the deaf-mute society, and talked with

the missionary, Mr. A. M. Cuttall. From there I went to Lincoln, where I met Mr. C. J. Bromhead, a deaf gentleman who is very active in the work among his fellow unfortunates; and also met the missionary of the Lincoln Bishopric, Mr. Pearce. On June 30 I reached Glasgow, unfortunately on the same day as the school closed, so I had to content myself with looking through the buildings. I derived, instead, much advantage from a visit to the Glasgow Institute, a church and meeting house for the deaf, 158 West Regent Street, the largest building for this purpose I have seen anywhere. I had interesting conversations with the pastor, Mr. J. Henderson, and with the leading deaf, such as Mr. E. Docherty, Mr. A. MacGregor, Mr. W. Agnew, Mr. G. Edward, and others.

From Glasgow I went to Edinburgh July 5 and found the two schools there still in session, but about to close in a few days. The church, whose pastor is Mr. Hansell, and the assembly rooms connected therewith have a fine location on Albany Street.

This closed my foreign tour. On July 12 I embarked at Grangemouth and reached Christiania July 15.

CONCERNING AMERICAN DEAF-MUTE EDUCATION.

After having thus briefly described my travels, I will first try to present what is of particular interest to us concerning the education of the deaf in America.

In the United States there is such varied practice that I will confine myself to presenting a few principal observations.

One finds there, as elsewhere, opposition between the Oral method (first introduced in earnest in 1867) and what I will comprehensively designate as the Manual method, which includes the old sign-language method as well as the more modern Writing method.

But within these two principal methods there are vari-

ous subdivisions and various modes of applying and combining different practices, and in some schools one finds a state of transition which can hardly be classified under either method.

On the side of the Manual method there has been a tendency for many years to do away with the sign-language in the instruction and to use finger-spelling and writing exclusively. But there is a strong party which not only permits the use of the sign-language outside the schoolroom, but also claims that the deaf should receive instruction and practice therein. The American sign-language is the most complete in existence, and therefore rather difficult to acquire, and it would take the deaf a long time to master it if left to themselves. Those in the aforesaid party regard this very expressive and picturesque language as a necessity for the deaf, especially for those less endowed mentally. They think that instruction in the use of this language is necessary, although at the same time they are willing to exclude it from regular class work. The sign-language is at present one of the requisites to enable the deaf to mingle freely with their fellow unfortunates, who, where a considerable number live together in the same community, use it from long custom exclusively in communicating with one another.

On the other hand, the adherents of the Pure Writing method claim that the people within the manualists' camp overestimate the value of the sign-language, and underestimate its evil influence in the acquisition of language. They endeavor also to prevent the pupils from using signs outside of school hours and desire them to express themselves at all times by finger-spelling or writing.

Between these two extremes there are people of various shades of opinion, most of whom think that, since the sign-language has once been established as the customary language of the deaf out in the world, it must be tolerated, but should be excluded from the instruction in the classroom.

Nearly all, including the oralists, are of the opinion that "expressive motions of the hand," facial motions, and pantomime, may be permitted, especially during the early stages of instruction. But there is, naturally enough, some difference of opinion as to where the line should be drawn between this pantomime and signs, and some permit hardly more than is used by hearing persons in ordinary conversation.

In order properly to understand the part which the sign-language plays in America, one must recall that it is possible by means of this language, almost without the aid of finger-spelling and writing, to express about all that a person has occasion to say, with the exception of proper names and words rarely used or deep metaphysical and philosophical expressions. In Europe no such complete sign-language is to be found, not even in France, the original home of the sign-language, where it has been considerably simplified since the days of the Abbé Sicard. When an American minister or missionary to the deaf speaks to his congregation, his discourse consists almost entirely of signs; only a very small portion is expressed by manual spelling. Exactly the opposite is the case in England. There signs—in a much less developed state than in America or even in France—constitute the usual means of communication among the less intelligent deaf, but finger-spelling plays a far more important part, and even preponderates when the minister "speaks" to his audience. As far as I have been able to judge, signs occupy only one-third or one-fourth of the discourse; the rest is spelling together with facial expression. It is said, however, that when the words of a public speaker are translated to the deaf the rendering in English is somewhat disconnected, while in America one is better able to give, by means of the sign-language, all that is said by the speaker.

My chief impression is that in America, with the large

communities of deaf in the larger cities, the sign-language is mainly looked upon as an established fact which nobody can get around, and the schools may as well admit it first as last. One can understand what a power this language exerts in a country where there are fifty thousand deaf-mutes, and where in the City of New York alone there are over two thousand,—a little city within a city.

In the United States the sign-language does not vary materially in different places; there are, as in spoken language, slight variations or dialects. In Great Britain and Ireland there is considerable difference in different localities, so that it may happen that the deaf from one section of the country cannot understand those from another. Moreover, in Ireland, the one-hand alphabet is chiefly used, but the two-hand alphabet in England and Scotland.

Some of the most earnest champions of the Oral method, especially in England, consider it important to oppose the tendencies of the deaf to associate with one another by endeavoring to prevent them from forming or joining societies of the deaf. It strikes me that this is beginning the work at the wrong end. One cannot successfully contend against effects without touching the causes. Professor Bell has a clearer view of the situation. He has perceived that the gathering together of the deaf is a result of their being trained together in the large institutions, and therefore his attacks are chiefly directed against these. For my part, I think that the inclination of the deaf to seek one another's company is both natural and proper. But it should not, as now, be a downright necessity; it should be a matter of sympathy, corresponding to the gathering together of people who have interests in common, but who can otherwise manage each for himself.

Among the oralists there are also various tendencies. As in Europe, more or less effort is made to exclude the

sign-language as a means of communication among the deaf. But the two modes of instruction in articulation are of the most interest for us. One method, whose chief exponent is, doubtless, Miss Caroline A. Yale, of Northampton, follows the plan which is the usual one in Europe; *i. e.*, the pupils first learn the different sounds and afterward learn words and sentences. The other method, which is advocated by Dr. Bell, begins with words and sentences (perhaps, more correctly, with sentences and words), which the children learn to recognize by writing or lip-reading, or *vice versa*, before they are taught to pronounce them. The first method is called "the element method," the other "the word and sentence method."

While many American teachers regard the manual alphabet as an enemy to the Oral method, there are many, among them Dr. Bell, who hold that the manual alphabet is simply to be regarded as writing in the air, and that therefore there is nothing to prevent the orally taught deaf from acquiring and using the manual alphabet, provided only that it is not used in place of speech. But opinions differ as to the extent to which it should be permitted and used. I will return to this in speaking of the Rochester School.

As before mentioned, Dr. Bell conducts a vigorous fight against the sign-language. Since this language has now become dominant among the deaf, he perceives that, in order to oppose it effectively, the deaf must be brought up under conditions which will not make it a necessary result that the sign-language shall become their natural language; *i. e.*, they must be kept outside the large schools where the sign-language is handed down from generation to generation, and they must not upon leaving school enter one of the large deaf-mute communities.

Dr. Bell therefore works for a decentralization from the very bottom. He wants the deaf instructed as far as possible in or near the home, by a method that will give

them the greatest possible command of the common language. He has opened a campaign for the establishment of small day-schools in the smaller cities and towns, and as a result Wisconsin, Illinois, and Ohio have already adopted laws which insure the carrying out of this plan. The fundamental idea is that where five deaf children can be gathered together, a school may be established.*

Dr. Bell's talk with me covered two main points, viz. : the best way of teaching the deaf to speak, and the best plan of deaf-mute education in general. As to the former, he was emphatically in favor of beginning with words and sentences,—a method which he himself had practised.

If we were, he said, to teach our hearing children to speak in the same way as we do the deaf when using the element method, they would never learn to speak. We cannot teach them to say p, p,—s, s,—v, v, etc. We talk to the hearing child in complete sentences, not slowly and plainly, but quickly, as in ordinary daily speech. Thus it soon learns to speak. The whole is more important than the parts.

As regards day-schools, he remarked that, according to the laws in Wisconsin, Illinois, and Ohio, wherever as many as five children could be gathered together a day-school might be established. When the teacher only has a few pupils, he can give them more individual instruction ; he becomes well acquainted with the parents or guardians of the pupils, and he can induce them to supplement the education at home, so that practically the child has several teachers instead of one, which in fact the hearing child also has. It is impossible, he said, to overestimate the value of bringing teachers and parents into a close relation to one another.

In connection with the day-schools, Associations of

* Since the above was written, Dr. Bell has kindly informed me that the State of Michigan also has this year adopted a similar law. There the minimum number of pupils is placed at three.

Parents of Deaf Children are established, of which there now are fifteen or sixteen. These associations also work for the spreading of the day-school system to other States besides those which already have adopted it.

In reply to my inquiry, How can the pupils acquire the various things that belong to a complete school course, when they only have a single teacher (in most cases a lady)? Dr. Bell replied that the deaf child must necessarily have special instruction in special branches, but it did not necessarily follow that this instruction must be given in a school for the deaf. They could receive instruction in gymnastics, in sloyd, in manual training, etc., with the hearing children. For a day-school for the deaf a classroom in a public school would be amply sufficient, and these children can then take part with the hearing children in the above-mentioned special courses.

I remarked also that a single teacher could scarcely give the pupils from the youngest to the oldest all the instruction that should be given. Dr. Bell replied that that which comes first and includes everything else is language,—the ability to understand and use language. When language has once been acquired, the rest comes of itself. Language can be best and most surely acquired in the earliest years,—but how can a little child be sent away from home? No; we must send the teacher to the child, not the child to the teacher.

Dr. Bell has promised to discuss further the questions which I brought up, in an article to be published in a professional journal toward the end of the year. When the article is received I shall have the honor of transmitting it.

The first Oral school in America, as before mentioned, was established in 1867. This was done upon the initiative of Gardiner G. Hubbard, whose deaf daughter (now Mrs. A. G. Bell) probably was the first to receive Oral instruction in America, except some isolated cases

which did not attract any followers. But the President of Gallaudet College, Dr. Edward M. Gallaudet, whose chief work lies in the direction of a higher academical education of the deaf, has earned a place in the front rank of pioneers introducing Oral instruction in America. After a trip to Europe in 1867, he made the following recommendation to the directors of the school for the deaf in the District of Columbia :

“That instruction in artificial speech and lip-reading be entered upon at as early a day as possible ; that all pupils in our primary department be afforded opportunities of engaging in this until it plainly appears that success is unlikely to crown their efforts ; that with those who evince facility in oral exercises instruction shall be continued during their entire residence in the institution.”

It may be said that there the foundation was laid for the so-called “Combined” method, also called the Eclectic, or the method embracing all methods. In its original form the Combined method meant that all the pupils were instructed by signs, finger-spelling, and writing, and that those pupils who possessed special aptitude also received instruction in speech. Later, various combinations have been developed, which have already been indicated above. It may be said that the nearest approach to this method in the Oral schools is where a certain number of pupils are instructed exclusively by the Writing method, and the rest exclusively by the Oral method. It is, however, difficult to classify the method by which all the pupils are taught to speak, while at the same time all are taught to use the manual alphabet.

Until 1884 there were no statistics as to the relation of the different methods to one another in the American schools. From that year the proportion is as follows :

	Educated by the Manual Method.	Educated by the Oral Method.	Educated by the Combined Methods.	Total per cent.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	
1884	72.80	27.20		100.00
1891	54.00	10.40	35.60	100.00
1894	45.60	26.80	27.60	100.00
1897	43.60	37.20	19.20	100.00

What strikes the eye strongly here, besides the steady growth of the Oral method as compared with the Manual method, is the fact that instruction exclusively by speech is growing very rapidly at the expense of instruction in speech to pupils who are otherwise taught by the Manual method. Notwithstanding the lack of detailed information for years preceding 1891, and statistics of all kinds previous to 1884, it can be readily seen that until or toward 1891 the growth was chiefly in favor of the Combined method, but from that year exclusively in favor of the Oral method.

The total number of pupils in American deaf-mute schools was, in 1884, 7,482, of whom 2,041 were instructed in articulation; in 1891, 9,232, of whom 963 were instructed by the Pure Oral method, and 3,282 by the Combined method; in 1894, 8,825, of whom 2,369 were instructed by the Pure Oral method, and 2,433 by the Combined method; and finally, in 1897, 9,749, of whom 3,628 were Pure Oral pupils, and 1,870 were instructed by the Combined method. In 1893 the two last-named classes became a majority instead of a minority; and in 1894 the Pure Oral pupils became a majority within the orally instructed group.* It is presumably the exclusion of signs

* These statistics, including the preceding table of percentages, are evidently taken from Dr. Bell's sheet, "Methods of Instructing the Deaf in the United States," published in September, 1898, and distributed by the Volta Bureau, although Mr. Havstad makes no mention of their source. This sheet has been criticised in the *Annals* (February, 1899,

from the classroom which has been the chief means of bringing about this result. As will be observed, the great agitation within the American schools is of quite recent origin. It is preceded by long and persistent work; a period of development, rich in experimenting, disappointment, and triumph; and it may be said that the advocates of the Manual method are not behind the oralists in making efficient contributions to this progress.

There is no question but that here, as elsewhere, the Oral method is injured by the lack of judgment and the exaggeration of a few of its adherents. There are those who would delude themselves and the public into the belief that this method almost removes the barrier between the deaf and the hearing; whereas the fact is that only a minority of the deaf, even of those who have received the best instruction, can with ease understand and make themselves understood by speech outside the circle of their daily associates. If one should judge the success of this method by the standard of the most sanguine, one would often

page 134) and in a number of the school papers. It was one of the main reasons for the passage of a resolution by the last National Convention of the Deaf strongly condemning the Volta Bureau, or rather its founder, for sending out literature calculated to mislead the public.

The trouble with Dr. Bell's statistics is that, while he takes the figures from the *Annals*, he does not follow the definitions there given as to methods of instruction, but uses definitions to suit himself, so as to show a tremendous decline in the Combined System and a corresponding gain for the Oral method.

Thus, for the year 1897, he gives the "Number taught wholly by Oral Methods" as 3,628, and the "Number taught by Combined Systems" as 1,870. These figures are obtained by counting all the pupils in the oral classes of the Combined-System schools as "taught wholly by Oral Methods" and *deducting* them from the "Combined Systems," whereas they should properly be *credited* to the Combined System. Of the 9,749 pupils in American Schools for the Deaf in that year, 8,040, or 82½ per cent., were pupils in Combined-System schools: of the 5,498 taught speech, 3,956, or 72 per cent., were pupils in Combined-System schools; of the 3,466 "taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method," 2,090, or 60 per cent., were pupils in Combined-System schools.—TRANSLATOR.

feel tempted to break the rod over the Oral method. It is necessary to apply, not the aforementioned standard, but the true one, namely, what is attained and can be attained; and to inform the public as to what the advantages of the Oral method really are. It will then be easier to understand why this method makes its way steadily forward notwithstanding the inevitable disappointment of those who have expected too much from it, and one must at the same time thank those who by their opposition and criticism compel moderation and patience in the work.

The work accomplished in most of the American schools, and not least in those which still employ the Manual method in its old form, is in its way excellent. It is clearly demonstrated that the deaf, when the instruction is good and the teachers capable, can be carried a great distance and attain a high degree of intellectual development, no matter what method is used. The sign-language, it cannot be denied, has a tendency to limit the command of language in a serious degree, but this does not prevent the industrious pupil from acquiring a considerable amount of general information.

I think I have mentioned the principal things which at this time are of interest to us, and I will now speak of the several schools I have visited in America as well as in England and Scotland, and afterwards point out the most important lessons which can be utilized in this country from a study of the instruction of the deaf in these countries.

First, however, I will call attention to the fact that compulsory education for the deaf can be said to exist only partially in the United States. Even in the Eastern States, where compulsory education exists on paper, it is indifferently enforced, and in the West, and especially in the South, there are not even laws having compulsory education in view. There are, therefore, still many deaf, especially among immigrants, who do not receive any school instruction.

In England and Scotland compulsory education exists since 1893 and 1891, respectively. But in the first-mentioned country the complaint is still made that it is not enforced.

LARS A. HAVSTAD,
Christiania, Sweden.

[TO BE CONCLUDED.]

NOTES ON MANUAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.—II.*

In my previous article I endeavored to give a clear idea of the meaning of manual training and its relation to education and the courses of study pursued in the public schools. Trade teaching and the trade school will engage the main part of our attention in this article.

While trade teaching is instruction in a special line of work in the industries, the term is too often used interchangeably with manual training, and much of the discussion on the industrial question in the past has, therefore, been rendered partly worthless.

Again, the term "trade" no longer retains its original significance. To illustrate, let me take the shoemaker's trade. Before the introduction of machinery and the minute division of that trade into piece-work for the different parts of a boot or shoe, the article was made by hand, and that by one man, who was called a shoemaker, and his trade shoemaking. But how much now remains of the shoemaker's trade, or, for that matter, even of the shoemaker himself? I have read of an Eastern shoe-factory that employed several hundred hands, but not half a dozen of them could make a shoe. A young carpenter told me not very long ago that the principal business of a carpenter in the future would be more the

* Continued from the January number of the *Annals*, page 46.

putting together of houses than building them ; *i. e.*, the pieces which were to compose the house would be made, according to specifications, by machinery, and then by simply running them together the building would be practically completed. From another man, who had spent the best part of his life in industrial pursuits, I have gleaned similar facts respecting other trades. In all discussions of industrial training or education, if these facts are borne in mind, it will be easier to come to an understanding of the points at issue.

This leads me to speak of the modern processes of manufacture, which are essentially machine methods, and are applied all the way from the making of a pin up to the most complex and costly articles of commerce. Before the advance of these methods primitive or hand methods are fast disappearing, so that it is only a question of time when they will be entirely out of use. Under the highest development of the machine system matters are so arranged that every workman has his particular work to perform, generally but a very small portion of that which goes to the completion of the article to be produced.

The rapidity with which such a system works, in many instances, as compared with primitive methods is simply wonderful. For example, steam planing-machines will dress the material for a sleigh in about fifteen minutes, which is more than forty times quicker than by the old way, with draw-shaves and planes. Again, a thousand clock movements are now made, by the modern method, in a little over 886 hours, while it required 7,352 hours to do the same under the old method. These are only two examples out of hundreds that might be produced. The whole subject presents a strong argument for a more general introduction of modern methods and appliances into our industrial departments.

The primary object of the trade school is to teach trades ; that of the manual-training school is to teach the

care and use of tools, a knowledge of materials, measuring, and the operating of machinery, which lie at the foundation of all mechanical callings. Both classes of schools are correlated with the industrial work and with the literary and scientific courses; the former more with reference to special callings; the latter, to all-round development or training.

Yet some of those trade schools give courses in manual training before beginning the trade work. For example, the California School of Mechanic Arts requires its students to complete a two-year course in woodwork and ironwork, involving the elements of carpentry, pattern-making, forging, moulding, and iron-fitting. The trade work which follows this covers only two years, but the literary and scientific work which goes along with it is of a high order. In another school the manual-training work is slightly reduced, requiring only a year and a half, and a boy must be at least 17 years of age before he is given trade work. A third trade school, which omits the preliminary features mentioned above, deems five and a half months sufficient to give a young man such a training in the principles of a trade and the proper ways of doing work that he is fitted to acquire, upon active practice at the trade, that necessary skill and quickness which are required of the first-class mechanic. It makes no pretence to turning out skilled workmen. Some of the trades which this school teaches are plumbing, carpentry, wood-turning, machine work, house-painting, and sign-painting.

More examples of trade schools might be given, but these will do for the present. While none of the above may be the best methods for our schools, it will never do to leave out manual training. The industrial department of a school for the deaf should consist of a thorough course in manual training for boys and in domestic science for girls, extending over at least four years. This work

may be supplemented by other work of a more strictly industrial nature, but it should be obligatory upon all. The value of such a course would be three-fold for all: education, manual skill, and the discovery of one's natural aptitudes. After the completion of such a course of training, we need have no fears for whatever any of our boys and girls may undertake after leaving school, provided they are young men and women of ordinary industry and intelligence.

One main reason for great faith in this plan is that it renders the pupil much more able to adapt himself to different ways of working and to different circumstances and conditions. Manual training, by endowing the young with this power of adaptation, has given rise to the saying that availability is better than skilled ability. Another thing should be remembered, viz., that manual training naturally leads to the trades, and exclusive attention to any one of its numerous branches, after the completion of the regular course, becomes trade teaching. In this way it is easily seen how much better it is to pass from the general to the special than to compel the pupil to devote the best part of his school life to any narrow line of work.

My own observation of present industrial methods and conditions, the fact that so many pupils after leaving school follow different trades or callings from those pursued at school, and statements regarding our industrial departments in the "Histories of American Schools for the Deaf" published by the Volta Bureau in 1893, have all very much influenced me toward this conclusion. It would seem to be endorsed, for hearing youth, at least, by the President of Girard College, Philadelphia, who says that, while manual training is not trade teaching, it brings pupils a long way on toward the learning of the trades; and that "as a trained mind is the best preparation for the study of a profession, so are the trained

hand and the trained eye the best preparation for the successful acquisition of a trade." Some may doubt the application of this truth to the case of the deaf, but I do not. The deaf certainly will learn their trade better and faster for such training, whether in school or out.

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[TO BE CONTINUED.]

THE CONVENTION OF GERMAN OTOLOGISTS AND TEACHERS OF THE DEAF AT MUNICH, SEPTEMBER 19, 1899.

LAST March a committee of the German Otological Society sent a circular letter to the Ministers of Education of the several States of the German Empire giving reasons for the call of a Convention of German Otologists and Teachers of the Deaf.

The chief reasons advanced for calling the meeting were as follows:

The pupils of the German deaf-mute schools have so far received very small benefit from the great advance made in otology during the last decades.

Investigations made by competent aurists have demonstrated that there is a certain percentage among the pupils of these schools who suffer from organic diseases of the ear, which can and ought to be remedied, so as not to remain a menace to health and life.

There is, further, a considerable percentage suffering from organic malformations in the nasal-oral cavity producing physical difficulties of speech. Though these malformations are of secondary importance, still they hinder the successful accomplishment of the Oral method, and should therefore receive surgical treatment.

In regard to the functional capacity of the ear, otological investigations have proved that there is a considerable proportion among the deaf who possess some degree of hearing, and among these there are, again, some who may be classed as very hard of hearing and who are capable of learning speech through the medium of the ear. These last require a separate and special system of instruction, and should be capable of reaching a higher mental plane than the totally deaf.

The determination of the degree of hearing that may exist must be regarded as a difficult functional investigation that can be performed accurately only by a competent aurist.

The attitude of teachers of the deaf toward the auricular method varies with the individual—some being enthusiastically for and others as decidedly against the method. Therefore the otologists have planned a meeting with the teachers of the deaf in order to convince them of the successes to be achieved with the method, the meeting to be held at the Central Institution for the Deaf, at Munich, some of whose pupils have, for a period of two years, received auricular instruction based upon the experiments of Professor Bezold.

The otologists expect to attend the Convention in force, and for the reasons advanced they request that delegates be sent from the various deaf-mute schools, preferably superintendents and principals.

The circular is signed by Dr. J. Kessel, Professor at Jena, and Dr. K. Bürkner, Professor at Göttingen.

When the Convention assembled on the 16th of September, there were present 51 otologists representing fourteen states of the German Empire, and also Austria, Switzerland, the Netherlands, and the United States ; and 87 teachers, seven of them ladies.

The most prominent personage at the Convention was Dr. Frederick Bezold, Professor at the University of

Munich, whose paper on "The Hearing Capacity of the Deaf and Instruction based thereon through the Ear" is perhaps the most important contribution that has yet been made to this branch of pedagogics, and promises to place the whole process upon a sure and scientific basis.

In this paper Dr. Bezold passed in review the labors of previous investigators in this field, Itard, Urbantschitsch, and others, which the readers of the *Annals* may remember were discussed by Mr. Heidsiek in his work on "Hearing Deaf-Mutes." Contrary to Mr. Heidsiek, whose opinion on the results of these earlier efforts, and upon those of Professor Urbantschitsch in particular, was decidedly negative, Dr. Bezold found much in them that was encouraging, his chief objection being to the means and manner of testing the latent hearing of the pupils.

The first principle set forth by Dr. Bezold is that it is possible to measure accurately, according to its extent in the tone scale and the degree of its intensity, the remnant of hearing existing in the case of each pupil at the very beginning of instruction.

Before beginning his experiments upon the deaf, Dr. Bezold had prepared an apparatus by means of which all the tones perceptible to the human ear can be produced in continuous and regular series. As he had discovered perception for small portions of this tone-scale in certain deaf-mutes, it occurred to him to make a more extensive experiment in this direction, and for this purpose the pupils of the school at Munich were readily placed at his disposal. The results were astonishing, an unexpected number of children manifesting more or less ability to hear.

Dr. Bezold's tone-series includes all imaginable tones, beginning with sub-contra C with sixteen double vibrations and extending beyond c'''''' with 16,000 double vibrations. The apparatus employed consists of ten tuning-

forks of different sizes supplied with movable weights and covering the series up to c''' with 1,024 double vibrations. As the tone-field of each fork ends where that of the next upper fork begins, these ten forks can produce every imaginable tone lying between 16 and 1,024 vibrations. Beyond c''' the remaining tones are produced by means of three organ pipes with movable stops, each of them covering a scale of two octaves and more. This combination of tuning-forks and organ pipes was selected because thus the tones could be produced in their purity and separately, with no overlapping of lower or higher tones in greater or less measure, as is the case with most other instruments of music. With such an apparatus it becomes an easy matter to illustrate and determine the capacity of any human ear, beginning with the hardly perceptible bass of the first fork and gradually increasing in volume and perceptibility until in the upper regions of the third and last pipe the sound again evades the ear. Dr. Bezold fixed the cost of such an apparatus at 500 marks, or \$120.

Even with this apparatus it is not easy to test the ear of the deaf. The aurist finds an accurate investigation of the ear of normal persons or of those hard of hearing difficult enough, and the process becomes still more complicated with deaf-mute children, whose conception of the term "hearing" is extremely hazy. The acute senses of feeling and sight must be eliminated as completely as possible, and especial care taken not to transmit the vibrations through the bones of the head—a phenomenon familiar to us in the audiphone. Another necessary condition is that the deaf-mute should respond *immediately* as each tone is applied to the ear. If an interval of more than thirty seconds occurs, the subject is hopeless.

In his experiments upon 79 pupils at the Munich School in 1893, Dr. Bezold found that fifteen, or 19 per cent., were totally deaf in both ears. Four years later, with a more perfect apparatus, he reduced the percentage to 18. In 1898,

among 59 pupils, he found that thirteen, or 22 per cent., were totally deaf in both ears, and eight, or 14 per cent., were deaf in one ear only. The other pupils possessed an accurately demonstrable hearing capacity for greater or less portions of the tone-series. Most frequently portions of the lower end of the series were wanting. Defects in the upper end were somewhat less frequent. Dr. Bezold designated very small portions of the series as *islands*, and absence of hearing along the series as simple or double *breaks*. He grouped the varying capacities to hear into six classes: 1st, islands; 2d, simple and double breaks; 3d, extensive defect in the upper end of the scale that might extend to the middle of the scale; 4th, smaller defect in the upper end of the scale; 5th, extensive defect in the lower end of the scale; 6th, extensive stretches of hearing, with small or almost no defect in the upper and lower end of the scale.

As a matter of course Dr. Bezold also used the voice in testing the hearing of the children, and was able to demonstrate a theoretical as well as practical relation between tone-hearing and voice-hearing, for he discovered the significant fact that ability to apprehend the voice was present only when there existed ability to hear a particular portion in his tone-series. *This portion was covered by the notes from b' to g'' . Not a single deaf-mute in whom this portion of the scale was wanting was found capable of apprehending speech through the ear.* The process of auricular instruction is thus given a reliable and absolutely accurate starting-point free from doubt or guess-work.

It does not follow, however, that *all* deaf-mutes possessing the b' - g'' portion of the scale can be taught speech through the ear. The pupil may be feeble-minded, and, again, the b' - g'' perception may not be sufficiently strong. It also is evident that where the b' - g'' portion is present the ability to apprehend speech becomes still more pro-

nounced where the aural capacity is augmented by the apprehension of other portions of the scale.

To illustrate his remarks Dr. Bezold employed charts representing the several notes of the tone-series from sub-contra C to c'''''''. Each of the pupils on whom his experiments were performed had a separate chart, on which the islands, breaks, or stretches in his aural capacity were marked with red.

His conclusion was that the test with this continuous tone-series was the only reliable, and at the same time the quickest, method of determining which of the pupils should receive their instruction through the ear.

Another advantage of the use of the tone-series was that particular defects in the tone-scale were accompanied by corresponding and particular defects in the articulate sounds of the pupil. Again, where a particular articulate sound is covered by a particular portion in the scale, and this portion of the scale is not represented in the aural capacity of the pupil, the pupil will never be able to hear the sound in question. The teacher is therefore aware from the first which sounds his pupil can hear and which he cannot. For the first the ear must do service ; for the latter the eye is called into requisition in lip-reading.

In this connection Dr. Bezold states that he found that the absence of even a very few sound-perceptions rendered the child incapable of apprehending speech of itself in the natural manner. In other words, if these few missing portions in the tone-scale had been present, the child would rank with persons of normal hearing. With such children systematic instruction should prove successful without an attempt to improve the existing hearing capacity.

Dr. Bezold disclaims any attempt to prove that acoustic drill can increase the capacity of the auditory nerve. His demonstrations make it plain that we cannot make a deaf-mute perceive sounds for which the corresponding

hearing capacity, *i. e.*, portion of the tone-series, is wanting, but that we can only teach him to supply the break or hiatus in the speech that strikes his ear by reading the lips or by putting one and two together, just as in the case of adults who have become hard of hearing.

Dr. Bezold's paper was followed by an exhibition of the auricular method as based on his theories, by Inspector Koller of the Munich School, with thirteen of his pupils. Dr. Bezold himself offered no suggestions as to a scheme or plan of auricular instruction, but in a subsequent paper Dr. Oscar Wolf, of Frankfort on the Main, offered, under the title "A Remodeling of the System of Deaf-Mute Instruction," propositions that, if adopted, would certainly revolutionize the Oral method as applied in Germany.

Dr. Passow, of Heidelberg, President of the Convention, read a paper on "The Work of the Aurist in Schools for the Deaf," that contained many suggestions of practical value. Thus, for instance, speaking of the tonsils, he described the far-reaching effect of trouble with these insignificant organs, not only upon the articulation and hearing capacity, but also the general health of the child. Swollen tonsils lead to breathing through the mouth, frequently producing diseases of the respiratory organs. Besides this, the children are restless in their sleep, lose appetite, and become lethargic. The hearing capacity is decreased by pressure on the Eustachian tube. As soon as the tonsils are removed the child recovers its mental and physical activity. Among 188 pupils at the Baden School, Dr. Passow found that no less than 35 had trouble from imperfect or diseased tonsils.

Another trouble that might seriously hinder the mental development of a pupil is suppuration and other irritation in the middle ear. One child at the Baden School who was thus afflicted suffered from violent headache and was a physical weakling. Upon the removal of the cause of

suppuration by a surgical operation the headaches disappeared and the boy seemed to have a new physical and mental birth.

Dr. Passow recommended the following measures, now observed at the Baden School :

1. At least once a year—if practicable, twice—a competent aurist should examine the pupils in the school.

2. The most suitable time for this examination would be the opening of the term.

3. The examination should cover the mouth, the organs of the throat, and the ears. The aural capacity of the children should be tested by the application of Bezold's tone-series.

4. Plugs of ear-wax and foreign substances in the ear should be removed, as well as enlarged tonsils. The attendant physician should be instructed to treat diseases of the nose.

5. Suppuration in the middle ear should be attended to by the attendant physician with the advice of the aurist. Should the suppuration be of a kind to render a radical operation necessary, the parents or guardians of the child should be advised to give their consent to the operation.

6. Subsequent observations should endeavor to determine the result of such treatment or operation upon the hearing, speech, intelligence, and general condition of the child.

7. A record should be kept of each child that in the course of time will show the result of the work done by the teachers, the attendant physician, and the aurist.

Other papers, giving results of experiments and investigations in various schools, were read by Dr. Alfred Denker, of Westphalia, Dr. Luescher, of Berne, and Dr. Schwendt, of Basel. Dr. Schwendt mentioned the curious case of two sisters who, though able to hear quite well, were unable to understand what was said to them. They

would give parrot-like imitations of what was spoken to them, repeat phrases and questions, but give no answers. But as soon as the ordinary process of lip-reading was resorted to they exhibited the same degree of intelligence as ordinary deaf children. They were not at all feeble-minded, nor were there any marked physical defects. Dr. Schwendt designated this peculiar manifestation as sensory aphasia.

All of the experiments and investigations described in these papers were based upon Dr. Bezold's tone-series. In fact, Dr. Bezold's tone-series was regarded as being as scientifically correct and infallible in its results as the analysis of the flame of any elementary substance by means of the spectrum.

It will be observed that all of the seven or eight papers read were prepared by scientists and aural surgeons having no immediate connection with the profession of educating the deaf. Again, their aim seemed rather the demonstration of a scientific fact for the benefit of a sceptical audience, than to devise methods and means by which this fact might be made of value in the education of the deaf. In the discussion which followed, the dissent of some of the teachers was so marked that Dr. Passow had to call attention to the circumstance that the Convention was not met to adopt resolutions, but to give expression of views and opinions, and that it was not at all intended to supplant the old system of instruction with the new scheme of auricular teaching. Even then Director Walther, of Berlin, seemed to voice the sentiments of many when he said: "You should not be surprised if we teachers of the deaf are becoming fidgety. Every day we are offered something new. First it is galvanism, then auricular drill, then the sign-language, writing, the manual alphabet, etc. We have always tried to keep within the bounds of the possible. We are glad to know that successful auricular exercises have been conducted in Baden. But we have

so far regarded these auricular exercises rather as a luxury. I believe I have just read that in Baden the course of instruction in the deaf-mute schools covers only six years. If a six-year course still prevails in schools for the deaf, then auricular exercises must be regarded as a wasteful luxury." Speaking of the auricular exercises employed in Vienna under the direction of Dr. Urbantschitsch, Mr. Walther stigmatized them as valueless in the instruction of the deaf.

On the other hand, teachers from the schools at Munich, Weissenfels, Gerlachsheim, and Hamburg, where pupils found capable after a test with Bezold's tone-series were instructed through the ear, were strong in their recommendation of the new departure. In their opinion, these pupils, about 20 per cent. of the whole number, had become palpably more accurate and rapid in their articulation and lip-reading, while, at the same time, they were able to cover the course of study more quickly. These pupils should, however, be separated from the rest, both for their own benefit and for that of their less fortunate fellows. The instruction of the latter could then proceed more satisfactorily and with less complications, while the former could advance unhindered by the limitations of their non-hearing schoolmates.

Still there was no exhaustive exchange of opinions as to how auricular instruction should be given a place in the general plan of deaf-mute education. Nor were resolutions of any kind adopted. But one fact was evident, and that is that aural surgery will hereafter occupy a more prominent place in the scheme of German schools for the deaf than has been the case in the past. It is also not at all unlikely that the German scientific mind, having discovered a prolific field for one branch of its investigations, will insist that the theories they are just beginning to advance should receive the test of general and painstaking practice. The Convention at Munich

may be regarded as the forerunner of others to be held in the not distant future. Certain phases of the new movement could be applied in American schools with the greatest advantage.

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A NECESSARY ACCOMPLISHMENT.

MASSACHUSETTS is a small State, but it is a progressive one, not only in the matter of education in general, but also in a particular branch of education in which all civilized people hold a common interest. I refer to the science of cooking. In this State it is now obligatory for all girls attending the public schools to take a course in economical cooking. Mark this,—"economical cooking." The larger number of cooks upon whose mercy housekeepers are cast are far from economical, and the teachers who make it a business to go from city to city, organizing what they call cooking classes, are even more extravagant and wasteful. The most of them merely direct the work of appointed aids, and expound upon the proceedings, while their pupils look on and later taste of the finished products. They know at the close of a lesson just as much as they knew at the beginning. The dishes compounded often call for the use of ingredients that the ordinary families have not in stock. The most wonderful cooking-school productions become flat failures in the hands of an inexperienced person. It is only by doing that the real knack and knowledge are acquired.

The higher education of women has bettered the entire civilized world, and its influence is felt everywhere. Yet, in the rush for higher education and the struggle for independence, the homely art of housekeeping and home-making threatens to be lost. The higher education of

boys and young men is discovered to have had the very undesirable result of making them practically worthless when manual dexterity becomes a necessity; so manual-training schools have come into existence. The same result has become evident in the education of girls and young women. It has raised most of them so much, in their own estimation, at least, as to make them quite useless, if not helpless, in some very important spheres of woman's life.

In many places people have come to a realization of the futility of an education that leaves the possessors so unfitted for what should be their proper sphere; they have aroused public sentiment and have succeeded in getting the trustees of some schools to erect fully equipped cottages, in which the girls are given useful, practical instruction in household duties and all that pertains to the making of a home. But Massachusetts appears to be the only State that has made a course in economical cooking obligatory upon all the girls in its public schools.

In this connection, it occurs to me that it would have been just as beneficial to the boys. I have seen boys as much interested in the cooking and sewing classes in vacation schools as any of the girls. An insight into the mysteries of cooking and an understanding of housework would be quite as useful to them as to their sisters. Let some of the needless literary frills and furbelows of the educational department give place to the science of living.

Nothing is more needed by every girl at a school for the deaf than such practical training. A cottage at each school, on the same plan as that at the Western Pennsylvania School for the deaf, at Edgewood, Pennsylvania, would be of incalculable benefit to its pupils.

Here the senior classes could be given the instruction so necessary to their happiness and welfare in life, of which they are deprived by the length of their absence from home. Besides, some return to homes where only

the most wasteful and foolish methods in housekeeping and cooking are employed. Others, unfortunately, have become so accustomed to seeing some one else do the work which in their own homes should properly fall to their share that they refuse to attempt to learn.

I regret to say that their school-life associates and surroundings are as often responsible for the refusal as faulty home management.

There is always in a large and mixed assemblage of girls and boys, such as are found in our schools, some who see fit to consider any form of manual labor as beneath them. Strangely enough, it is not infrequently the case that these individuals belong to the class whose home life and surroundings make such labor imperative. It is almost always the rule that those who have been accustomed to the refinements and luxuries of life are the ones who make least opposition to the lack of them, and are most considerate of others as regards personal feelings and appearances; and it is this class of our pupils who are least likely to belittle manual labor.

The great need of instruction in all departments of housework has been forcibly brought to my attention in recent years. A few girls easily and quickly understand all that pertains to such duties, and are not timid about attempting things in the culinary department. But the greater number need close supervision, persistent instruction, and much encouragement to induce them to become interested and do anything beyond what quite suits their fancy.

I believe such a course of instruction would most effectually nip in the bud the mischievous false pride that prevents so many of our girls from going out to service—the one pursuit open to many of them by which to make a comfortable and honorable living.

The mischief begins at school. It is impossible for matrons or supervisors to head off the subtle mischief-making or always to capture the real instigators of it.

Ask the girls of your school how many of them intend to make housework their means of livelihood, and see the shrugs and grimaces with which the proposition will be met. Ask them why they are so opposed to the idea, and the answers, I venture to say, will be rather surprising and productive of considerable serious thought, unless the questioner is a person who entertains the same contempt for service and those who serve as the girls surely will.

Much dealing with servants has given me considerable insight into the feelings and ambitions of the average maid. Stress of circumstances once occasioned the employment of a former pupil of a school for the deaf. When the subject was broached I was met with a flat refusal to act as a servant, with emphasis on the "servant;" but she would come as a friend.

Asked for reasons, none better were forthcoming than that people would talk. "What people?" I asked. "Former schoolmates." I reasoned thus: "You will not work for pay as a servant. But you are willing to do the same work for pay as a friend. Is that logical? You are out of employment and in great need of money. I ask you to do some work for me that I will pay you for; work that I should do myself had I the time and strength. You see the same work done at home daily, probably do it yourself, but are not paid. Is it not very, very foolish to refuse, simply for fear of being called a servant? Why is it worse to work for me seven hours a day in my comfortable home than in a crowded shop, with fifteen or twenty other girls, twelve hours a day for the same amount of wages?" Still false pride ruled to such an extent that I had to promise not to tell any one she was working for us, which was quite an unnecessary precaution.

The almost absolute ignorance she displayed in the performance of the simplest household tasks nearly dismayed me. Ten years or so at school had taught her little out-

side the schoolroom beyond sewing, ironing of common clothes, and bed-making. But she had learned to obey. This was the saving clause, and a willingness to profit by experience and instruction was the redeeming trait.

The vacations she had passed at home had been most unprofitably spent, judging by the little she knew about housework. The thorough sweeping of a carpeted room and the dusting of its various contents comprised some difficult lessons. The washing, wiping, and gentle handling of fine china and glassware caused anxious hours both to mistress and maid. The proper way to polish silver was quite unknown to her; bath-brick seemed as suitable as any other substance for that purpose. Her ways of washing windows and scrubbing painted floors were revelations of how *not* to do such things; the ironing of lace, embroideries, fine table linen, and fine clothes caused wearying hours of instruction. The arrangement of a small family table with all its dainty appointments was an unknown art.

As to cooking, her knowledge was absolutely *nil*. Some waste, much worryment, and many surprises were the daily allotment of the culinary department for a time. Though high marks in arithmetic had been won while a pupil at school, the simplest problem in fractions as presented in a receipt book, in rules for cakes or puddings, was beyond her power of demonstration. Questions in fractions could have been easily solved on her slate, but when it came to the practical solution with solids and liquids, that was another matter altogether. A half cup of this, a quarter pound of that, a gill of something, two and a half ounces of still another thing, was a more difficult example in fractions than she had ever before encountered. Fractional measurements of liquids and solids were a constant cause for puzzlement. The chemical action of various liquids was a great surprise. Though something of such matters had been taught at school, it needed

practical experience and personal observation to give the clear understanding needful.

Ignorance of the effects of heat and cold upon different substances sometimes resulted in disasters that worried her greatly. Economy was a word unknown in her vocabulary, whether of time, strength, or material. Forethought was a faculty lacking to a distressing degree; and most surprising and unexpected were the situations and complications that arose from the inability to make her head save her hands and heels.

Waiting upon the table was an unknown accomplishment. Things were as likely to be served in the entirely wrong manner as in the right.

An inability, at first, to understand why she had not the same privileges and rights to the use of articles in the house as had their respective owners resulted in some unhappy moments. So, also, did a disposition to resent not being allowed the freedom of the family apartments when her friends called. It was a difficult thing for her to learn that, though all persons may be born free, not all are equal in the social scale.

Constant watchfulness and patience on the mistress's part; a real desire to learn, added to a good memory and quick obedience on the maid's side, soon brought knowledge where before had been ignorance. Treat a servant as a human being, with a heart, feelings, and aspirations, and you are likely to have a faithful servant and good friend. Treat one as a machine which you consider as created for your sole use or pleasure, and you have a human machine—one of the kind that does not think. In course of time we had a faithful and valuable servant. So great became her pride and interest in the house and all its belongings, and in her own work, and so contented and successful did she become, that she was known to urge service upon others. It is to be hoped she may counteract in others some of the evil influences that so

clouded life for her the first year or two after leaving school.

This case proves what can be accomplished. It also serves to show how little fitted for the duties of life are some of the girls who leave our schools. Cooking and housework cannot be taught in the schoolroom, but teachers can do much, by example and precept, in showing their pupils that they honor all honorable labor. One teacher or officer who scorns manual labor can do incalculable harm.

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SCHOOL ITEMS.

Gallaudet College.—Professor Samuel Porter was ninety years old on the 12th of January last. When he came into the chapel that morning, all rose to do him honor. That he is still vigorous in mind and body is shown by the fact that on his birthday and for ten days previous he taught the classes of one of the instructors who was absent from the city.

Michigan School.—Miss Madge Turner, who has been teaching in this School the past six years, resigned at the close of the year 1899. She is succeeded by Miss Mamie M. Williamson, a graduate of the School, who was afterwards a student at Gallaudet College, and for the last few months has been a cadet in this School.

Milwaukee Day-School.—Mr. Adam Stettner, who established in Milwaukee the school for the deaf which later led to the formation of the Phonological Institute and the Milwaukee Day-School, died recently in that city. Mr. Stettner opened his school in January, 1878, as a boarding and day-school, in which the pupils were taught by the Oral method and in the German language. The Phonological Institute was organized later in the same year to assist indigent children to the benefits of this School and to extend the Oral method. In 1883 the

Institute withdrew its patronage from Mr. Stettner and established the Milwaukee Day-School, and in 1884 Mr. Stettner's school ceased to exist.

Mississippi Institution.—It is proposed to erect a new main building, a separate building for colored pupils, a power-house and shops, all estimated to cost \$250,000. Last summer the Board of Trustees through Mr. Dobyms asked for competitive plans from architects. The plans called for brick buildings, modern in every way, designed for a warm climate, the idea being mainly Mr. Dobyms's own. After several days' careful examination of the plans offered, those submitted by Mr. Olof Hanson, the deaf architect of Faribault, Minnesota, were adopted by the Board. Mr. Hanson probably has a better understanding of the peculiar needs of a school for the deaf than any other architect in the world, and with this special qualification he combines a thorough knowledge of his profession.

Oregon School.—The "Illustrated Annual" of the *Oregon Statesman* for January, 1900, contains an interesting descriptive article concerning this School, written by Mr. Wentz, the Superintendent, with a picture of the building and biographical sketches and portraits of several of the officers and teachers.

St. Louis Day-School.—Miss Clara L. Steidemann, a graduate of the St. Louis High and Normal Schools, has been added to the teaching force.

Streator Day-School.—The opening of a day-school at Streator, Illinois, under the State law providing for such schools, was announced in the last volume of the *Annals*, page 312, but we did not venture to insert this school in the Tabular Statement in the January number of the *Annals* of this year, as our circular of inquiry addressed to the teacher in charge in November had brought no reply. Since the number was published, the circular has been returned with the information desired. Miss Clara Brown is still the teacher of the school, and the number of pupils is eight—five boys and three girls. The method of instruction is Oral.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Coeducation.—A very full discussion of the subject of Coeducation in Schools for the Deaf is to be found in a recent publication of the Buenos Aires Institution, entitled “*La Escuela Mixta en los Institutos de Sordomudos*” (Buenos Aires, 1899, 8vo, pp. 106). It consists of (1) a paper read at a meeting of the teachers and officers of that Institution by Miss María Ana McCotter, Regent of the Girls’ Department, in which she argues strongly for the entire separation of the sexes during their school life, on the ground of their physical and intellectual differences and their different social missions, requiring a different kind of education, and the practical inconveniences and dangers of bringing them together in the same boarding-school; (2) an able Reply by Mr. J. Pablo Díaz Gómez, Vice Director of the Institution, who successfully refutes Miss McCotter’s arguments, and shows by the experience of other countries as well as on *a priori* grounds that the benefits of coeducation, especially at the age of pupils in ordinary schools for the deaf, are far greater than any possible disadvantages; and (3) an Opinion by Dr. D. Francisco A. Berra, a distinguished Argentine authority on education, who has visited many schools in Europe and America and has given especial attention to the subject of coeducation. Dr. Berra expresses the decided opinion that whatever be the race and the grade of culture of the people, and whether they live in the torrid, temperate, or frigid zone, coeducation is beneficial for the intellectual, social, and moral development of both boys and girls. The only criticism he would make upon the Buenos Aires Institution, in which the sexes are brought together in the schoolroom but are rigidly separated elsewhere, is that there is not enough social intercourse between them.

The Microphonograph.—*La Voix* for June and July, 1899, contains a full and interesting report written by Mr. H. Marichelle, an instructor in the Paris National Institution, of experiments made in that Institution with the microphonograph, concerning the value of which as a means of auricular training,

our readers will remember, great claims were made three years ago. (See the *Annals*, vol. xlii, p. 264.) We expect to publish the report in full in a future number of the *Annals*; meanwhile we quote the following summary of the conclusions reached by the committee which conducted the experiments:

(a) Without the aid of the processes already in use, the microphonograph would be of no value to teach the mechanism of articulation to a deaf-mute.

(b) It would not enable us to extend the benefit of auricular training to a greater number of pupils; only those can profit by it who possess an appreciable degree of audition.

(c) Employed alone, it would diminish rather than enlarge the field of auricular instruction, so far as relates to the quality and the quantity of the phonetic differentiations which it is proposed to effectuate.

(d) The microphonograph can be utilized in certain cases to repeat the exercises in audition already given by means of the voice alone; but the latter should always retain the first place and provide, as far as possible, for all new acquisitions.

The Twelfth Census.—The law relating to the Twelfth Census has been so amended by Congress as to provide for taking the census of all the deaf and blind in the United States, instead of limiting the inquiries to those in institutions as was provided in the original bill. The law now contains the following provision:

The Director of the Census is authorized and directed to collect statistics relating to all of the deaf, dumb, and blind, notwithstanding the restrictions and limitations contained in section eight of said Act entitled "An Act to provide for taking the Twelfth and subsequent censuses": *provided*, that in taking the census of said classes the inquiries shall be limited to the following four questions, namely: name, age, sex, and post-office address.

The Committee of the Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, appointed at Northampton last summer, consisting of Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, Dr. Joseph C. Gordon, Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, Hon. Edmund Lyon, and Mr. Frank W. Booth, worked hard to accomplish this result, especially its chairman, Dr. Bell, and it received much valuable assistance from other friends of the deaf. President Gallaudet went with Dr. Bell before the proper committees of both houses of Congress to urge the necessary legislation, and at

the suggestion of the Committee numerous letters and telegrams were sent by Superintendents, Principals, and Trustees of Schools for the Deaf and the Blind to Senators and Representatives in Congress. The Committee also had the cordial co-operation of the Hon. William R. Merriam, Director of the Census, and Dr. Frederic Howard Wines, Assistant Director.

The Church Mission.—The twenty-seventh anniversary of the Church Mission to Deaf-Mutes, New York, was held in St. Matthew's Church, West Thirty-Fourth street, near Central Park, on Sunday, December 24, 1899. A statement was presented by the Rev. Dr. Thomas Gallaudet, General Manager, reviewing the history of the Mission from its origin in the foundation of St. Ann's Church for Deaf-Mutes, in 1852, to the present time. The Mission, which now has no official connection with St. Ann's, was incorporated in 1872. Dr. Gallaudet explained its present situation as follows:

For a few years after its organization, its missionaries pioneered church work among deaf-mutes throughout our country in churches of the larger cities. But this national idea was soon given up, as one missionary after another desired to work in the diocese assigned to him by its Bishop. Various dioceses made arrangements to prosecute this peculiar Mission to the silent people. Thus it has come to pass that our Society is now limited in its operations to the dioceses of New York, Long Island, Newark, and Connecticut. Its missionaries hold sign services as often as practicable, in ten different places. They minister to the sick and needy. They find situations for the unemployed. They attend to many other details of the pastoral life which they are striving to cultivate.

Our Society owns and maintains a Home for Aged and Infirm Deaf-Mutes in the State of New York, on a farm of one hundred and fifty-six acres by the Hudson River between New Hamburg and Poughkeepsie, the post-office being Wappinger's Falls. The property is free from debt. The income of its endowment fund pays one-half of its current expenses. The balance comes from charitable gifts. There are twenty-six inmates in the Home—fourteen women and twelve men. All have been educated but have broken down in the battle of life. Three are deaf and dumb and blind. The religious services are a great comfort and help to this afflicted family. Since the Home was opened in April, 1886, eleven have had the consolation of the gospel to fill them with hope for the future as one after another they have finished their earthly pilgrimage and have been borne by the angels to paradise. The Holy Communion is celebrated in the Chapel of the Home on the second Sunday of each month.

This Home makes a pathetic appeal to the people of the State of New York for the means which are necessary not only to meet its present current expenses but to provide for the admission of more inmates.

South Australian Home for Aged and Infirm Deaf-Mutes.—Through the exertions of Mr. Samuel Johnson, Principal of the South Australian Institution, the friends of the deaf in South Australia last year established a Home for Aged and Infirm Deaf-Mutes at Parafield, in that Colony. One gentleman, Mr. J. H. Angus, gave a valuable farm comprising 280 acres as a site for the Home, and buildings carefully planned for the needs of the establishment were erected with funds raised by Mr. Johnson. The Home was opened with appropriate ceremonies, including an address by the Right Hon. Sir Samuel Way, Chief Justice of the Colony, September 9, 1899.

Proceedings of the National Educational Association.—The Proceedings and Addresses of the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the National Educational Association, held at Los Angeles, California, July 11–14, 1899, have been published by the Association. They make a large octavo volume of 1,258 pages, which is supplied free to members of the Association. Besides much that is of interest and value to all teachers, the volume includes the Secretary's Report of the Proceedings of the Department of the Education of the Deaf, the Blind, and the Feeble-minded. The papers read before this Department by Mr. Charles S. Perry, of Berkeley, California, Miss Helen Taylor, of Los Angeles, Mrs. Katherine T. Bingham, of Palo Alto, and Dr. Warring Wilkinson, of Berkeley, are given in full. We regret to see that in the Table of Contents this Department is called by the erroneous title of "Department of Education of Deaf, Dumb, and Feeble-minded," and in the heading of the Report and the Index by the objectionable one of "Department of the Education of Defectives."

The Braidwood Gold Medal Paper.—The valuable paper by Mr. John Beattie, of the Belfast, Ireland, Institution, on "The Teaching of Language during the First, Second, and Third

Years of a Deaf Child's School Life," to which the Braidwood Gold Medal was awarded last year, has been published separately by the British National Association of Teachers of the Deaf, and may be obtained for one shilling, post free, of the Honorary Secretaries of the Association, one of whom is Mr. W. S. Bessant, Royal Schools for the Deaf, Manchester, England.

Reports Received.—We have received the following Reports of Schools published in 1899 in addition to those previously acknowledged: Columbia, Fru Rosing's (Christiania, Norway), Groningen (Netherlands), Rotterdam (Netherlands), Texas, Venersborg (Sweden), Virginia.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

A gentleman of long experience in oral teaching, at present engaged in one of the first schools in the United Kingdom, seeks an opening in the United States. He possesses good government reports and can furnish excellent references. Address P. O. S., care of the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

MR. J. HEIDSIEK'S "Hearing Deaf-Mutes. A contribution toward the Elucidation of the Question of Methods," translated from the German by George W. Veditz, M. A., and published in the *Annals* for April, June, and September of last year, has been reprinted in pamphlet form. Copies may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at 25 cents each, postage included.

"FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH." A course of systematic instruction in language, in four volumes, by Caroline C. Sweet. Price, \$3.84 per dozen. Single copy, 40c.

"STORY READER, No. 1." Sixty short stories prepared for young pupils, compiled by Ida V. Hammond. Price, \$3.84 per dozen. Single copy, 40c.

"STORY READER, No. 2." Short stories prepared for young pupils, compiled by Ida V. Hammond. Price, \$4.20 per dozen. Single copy, 45c.

"TALKS AND STORIES." Contains nearly a hundred short stories and seventy-five conversations for practice in language, prepared by Wm. G. Jenkins, M. A. Price, \$6.00 per dozen. Single copy, 60c.

"BITS OF HISTORY." One hundred stories gathered from United States History, compiled by John E. Crane, M. A. Price, \$9.00 per dozen. Single copy, 90c.

"A PRIMER OF ENGLISH AND AMERICAN LITERATURE." By Abel S. Clark, M. A., with 25 portraits of authors. Price, \$7.80 per dozen. Single copy, 75c.

"WORDS AND PHRASES." Examples of the correct English usage, by William G. Jenkins, M. A. Price, \$6.00 per dozen.

"STORIES FOR LANGUAGE STUDY."—Adapted to pupils of the third or fourth grade, compiled by Jane Bartlett Kellogg. Price, \$4.20 per dozen.

Published by the American School, at Hartford, for the Deaf, Hartford, Connecticut.

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF, Established 1847. Complete sets of the *Annals* may now be obtained at \$2.00 a volume. Volumes i, ii, ix, x, xiv to xlv, inclusive, and the last two numbers of volume xiii, are unbound and will be sold separately. Volumes iii and iv, v and vi, vii and viii, xi and xii, together with the first two numbers of volume xiii, have been bound two volumes in one. These will be sold only as bound. Single numbers, from volume xiii, number 3, to the present issue, will be sold at 50 cents each. Indexes to the first twenty, the third ten, and the fourth ten volumes 50 cents each. The first two indexes, bound together in cloth, \$1.00. The three indexes, bound together in cloth, \$1.50. Address the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

Mr. JAMES DENISON's "Manual Alphabet as a Part of the Public-School Course," published in the *Annals* for October, 1886, has been reprinted in pamphlet form, accompanied by the beautiful manual alphabet drawn and engraved from photographs under the direction of Dr. J. C. GORDON. Copies may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at ten cents each, postage included.

STAMMERING, Stuttering, Lispering, Nasal Tone, Shrill Voice, etc., corrected by educational methods. Articulation Drill for Aphasic Patients: also for persons having Cleft Palate or other Malformation of the Vocal Organs; and for children exhibiting tardy development of the Faculty of Speech. Lip-reading taught to adults who have lost their hearing. *David Greene*, 1122 Broadway, Madison Square, New York.



MISSISSIPPI STATE CAPITOL BUILDING, JACKSON, MISSISSIPPI

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

VOL. XLV, No. 3.

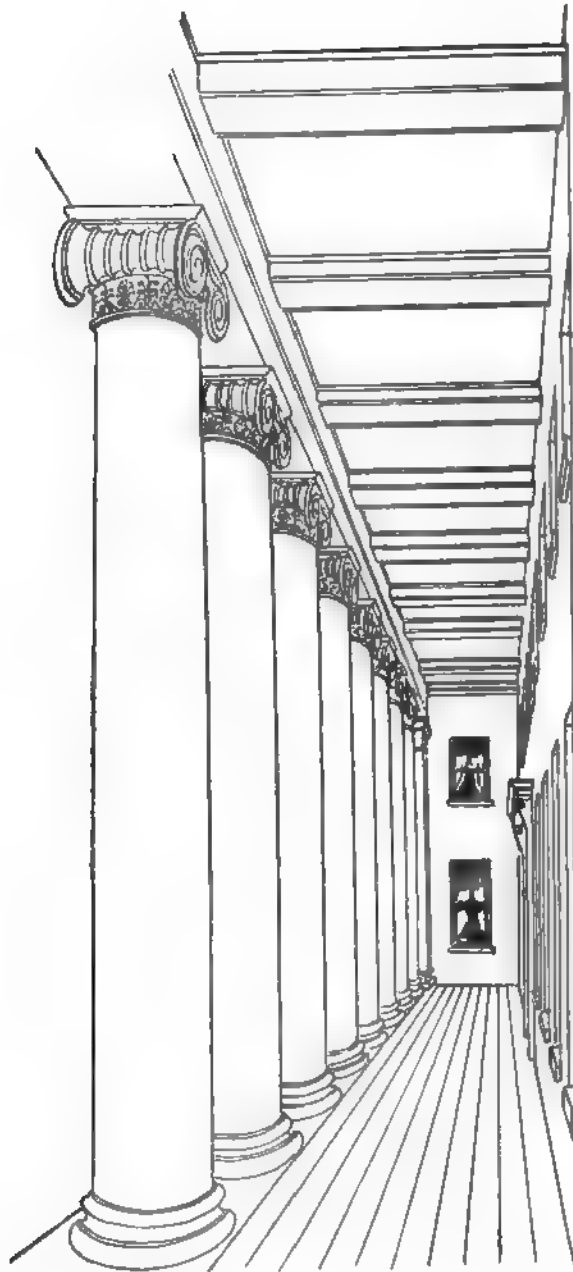
APRIL, 1900.

THE PLANS PREPARED FOR THE NEW BUILDING OF THE MISSISSIPPI INSTITUTION.

[Mr. WILLIAM N. BURT, Principal of the Western Pennsylvania Institution, in a recent letter to the editor, suggested that it would be desirable to publish in the *Annals* views, plans, and descriptions of buildings prepared for schools for the deaf, as a help to other schools desiring to erect new buildings or to make changes or additions to those already existing. This has been done to some extent in former volumes of the *Annals*, and we agree with Mr. Burt that it is desirable to do it still more in the future.

When arranging for the present article and its accompanying plans, we hoped to be able to announce at the time of its publication that the erection of the building had been fully decided upon ; for an appropriation for that purpose had passed the Mississippi House of Representatives by a large majority, and there was every reason to expect that it would also pass the Senate ; but the bill was afterwards reconsidered in the House, and—large appropriations having been made in the mean time for other purposes—it finally failed to receive the majority required by the constitution. It is confidently expected that it will pass the Legislature at its next session two years hence ; meanwhile we deem it proper, with the consent of Mr. Dobyns, Superintendent of the Mississippi Institution, and of Mr. Hanson, the architect of the building, to give other schools the benefit of their valuable labors.—ED. ANNALS.]

The location on which it is expected to build the proposed new buildings for the Mississippi Institution for the Education of the Deaf is on high ground within easy reach of the city of Jackson. The buildings are designed on classic lines, with Greek details and proportions. The main building as shown on the plans is 420 feet long.



VIEW OF THE COLONNADE FROM THE STAIR LANDING OVER THE
VAULT.

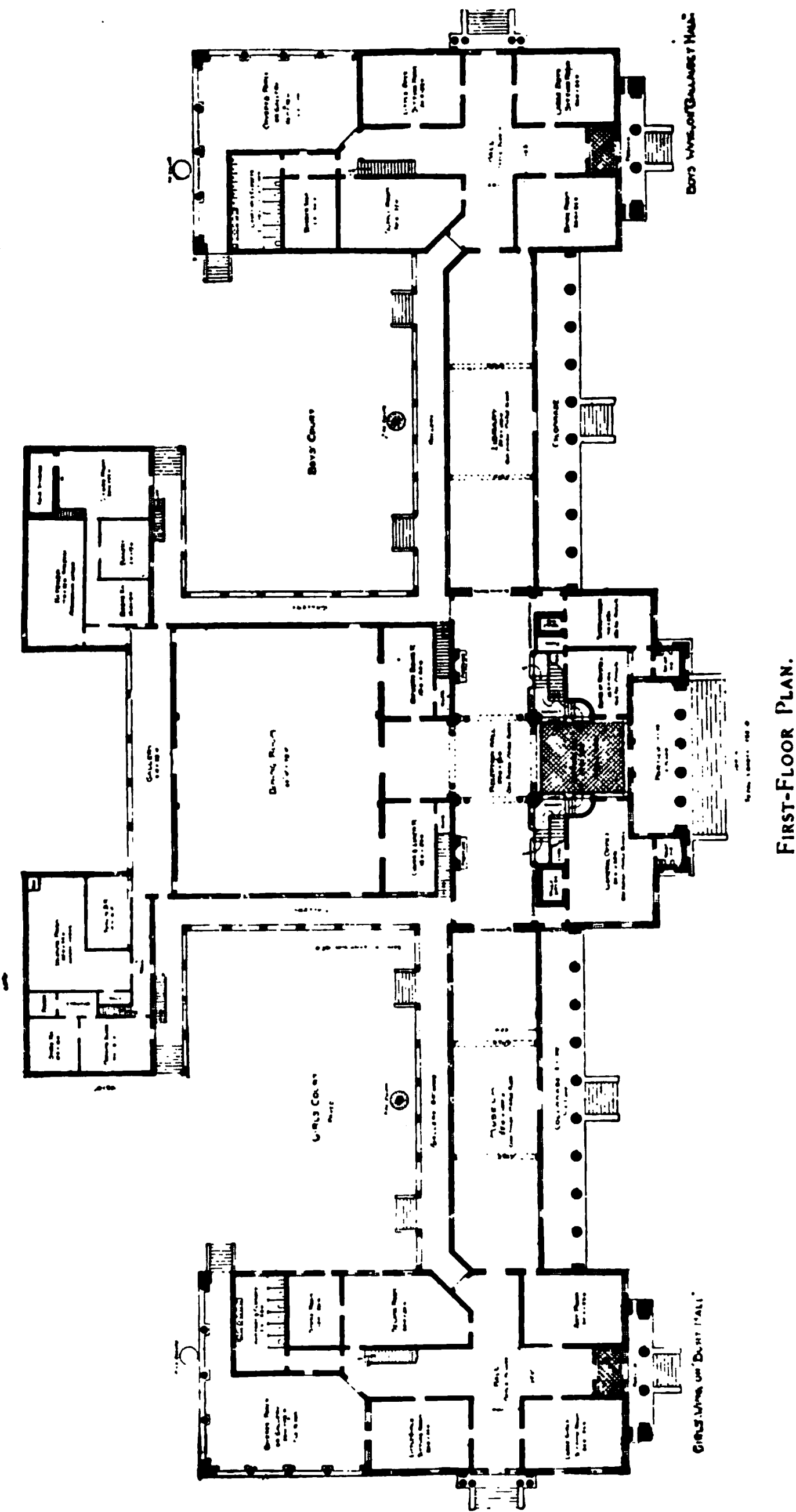
Being comparatively low for so long a building, a treatment which should increase the apparent height was desirable. The columns are well adapted for this purpose, and, besides being appropriate to a Southern climate, lend dignity and beauty to the composition as a whole. No attempt has been made at ornamentation, except such architectural embellishment as properly belongs to the style.

The design for the main building contemplates a brick structure on a stone foundation. The centre building and the two wings will be three stories high, while the connecting parts will be only two stories high. The front is to be of pressed brick, and the columns will be of brick of a lighter color than the body of the building. The bases of the columns will be stone, while the Ionic capitals, modelled after the Erechtheum of Athens, are to be moulded out of terra cotta. Supported by the columns are an architrave and a frieze, to be constructed of brick, of the same color as the columns, and above is a classic cornice made of galvanized iron. A slate roof insures durability and is in keeping with the substantial character of the structure generally. The dome gives a central finish to the whole composition, as well as furnishes light in the rotunda, and will assist in the ventilation of the building.

As the school is located in a warm climate, the question of ventilation demanded careful consideration. The prevailing summer winds blow toward the front, and the outline of the front is well calculated to catch the breeze and send it through the building. Large apartments, spacious halls, and lofty ceilings will assist materially in keeping cool.

FIRST-FLOOR PLAN.

Referring to the plan of the first floor, the front part of the centre building is occupied by the administration department. On the left is the girls' wing and on the right

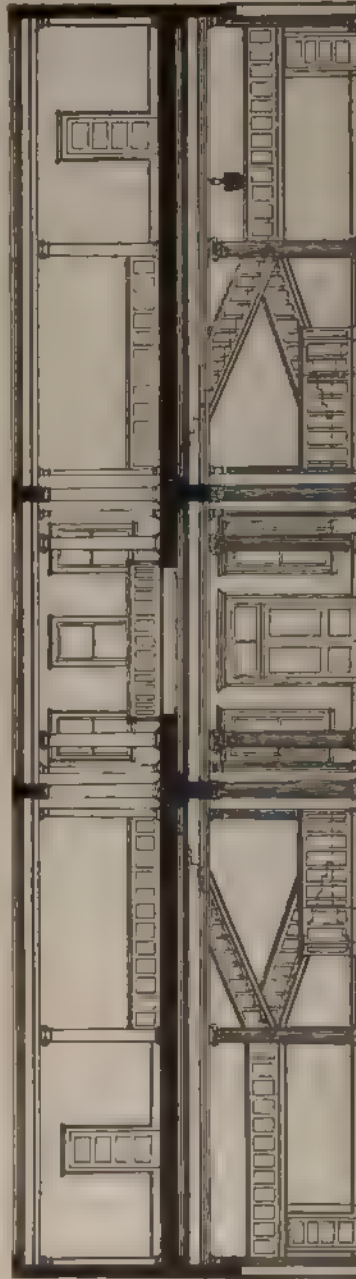


the boys', connected with the main building by the museum and library buildings, respectively. In the rear part of the centre building are the dining-rooms for officers and pupils, and beyond are the laundry and kitchen buildings. The centre building is named "Lawrence Hall," in honor of the deaf pupil and teacher, Lawrence Saunders; the girls' wing is named "Burt Hall," in honor of one of the earliest friends of the school; and the boys' wing is named "Gallaudet Hall."

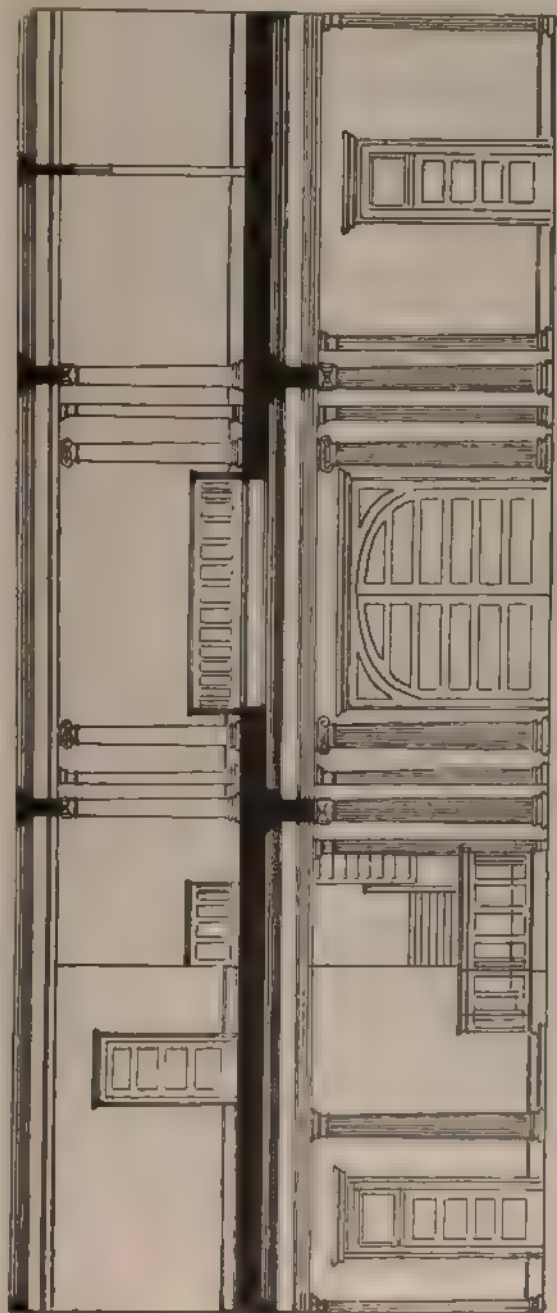
A broad, straight avenue (not shown in the drawing), leads directly to the front entrance, which is reached by a broad flight of stone steps. Through a spacious portico we enter the main hall, with its marble floor. On the left is the general office, with a vault for storage of records. On the right is the trustees' room, with a private office for the superintendent beyond.

Passing through the entrance hall, we enter the spacious reception hall, with two large, old-fashioned fireplaces. From this hall a full view of the staircases is to be seen as shown in the sectional views. The staircases are unique in that each starts from two points, so that they will be equally accessible whether one comes from the front entrance or from one of the wings. The stairways have landings midway up extending entirely over the vaults, and out to the windows facing the colonnades, of which a good view is obtained, as shown in a perspective view. A feature of the plan is that a person standing in the centre under the dome can look out in four directions, and thus at once take in the whole length and depth of the building. Upwards the view extends through the well-holes to the ceiling of the dome.

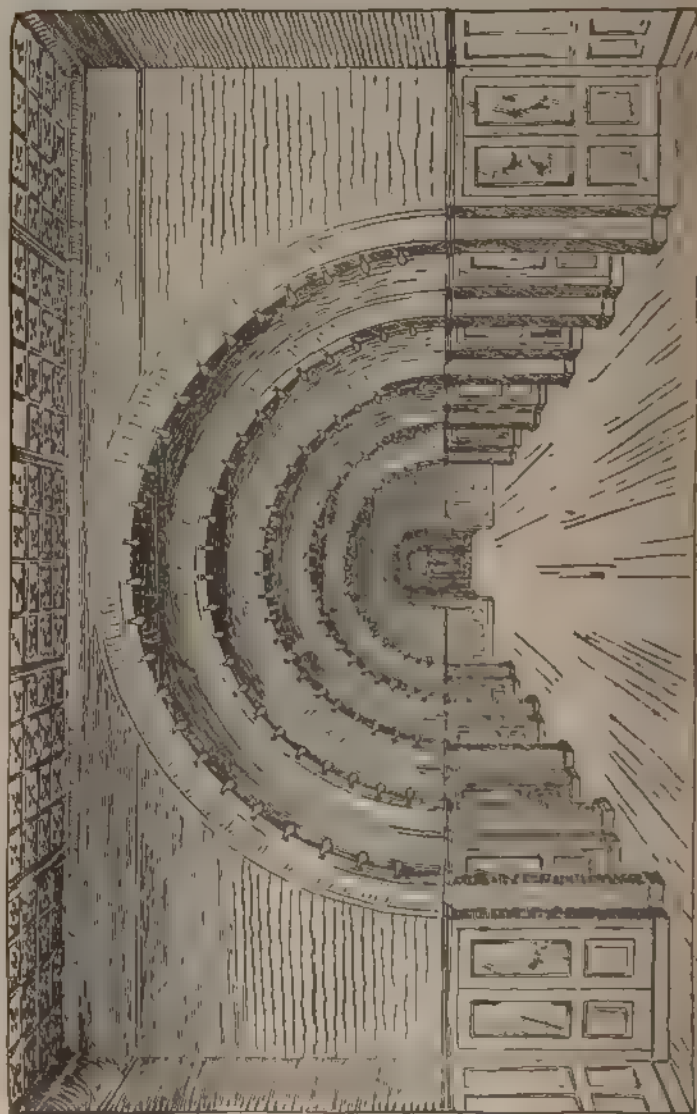
Connected with the reception hall by large sliding doors are the library and museum, of which an interior perspective view is shown, the cases for objects and books being placed in bays, each with a window. These rooms are spanned by arches, which, when studded with electric



SECTION THROUGH THE RECEPTION HALL, LOOKING TOWARD FRONT ENTRANCE



SECTION THROUGH CENTRE BUILDING



MUSEUM AND LIBRARY

lights, will give a beautiful effect at night, as well as supply ample light to those using the rooms.

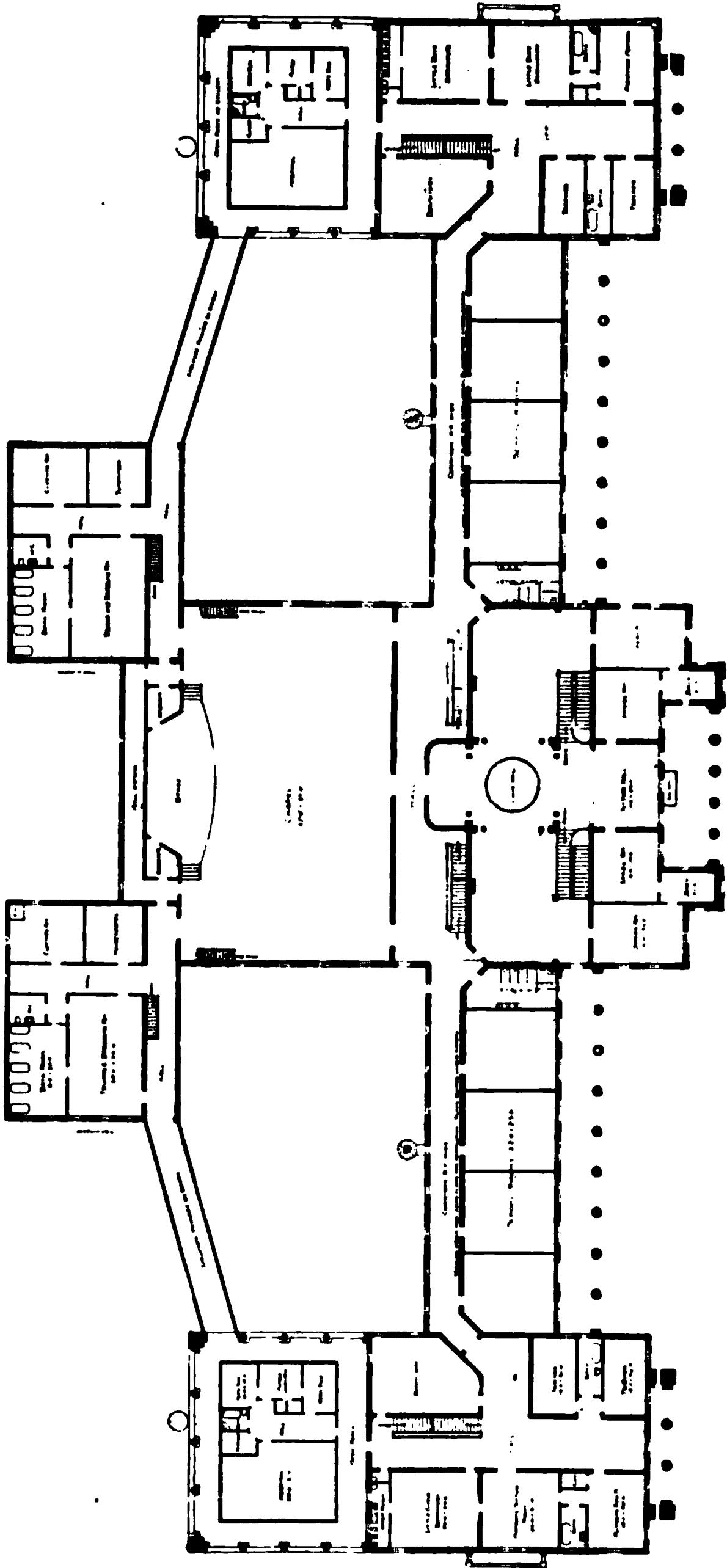
The girls' building contains separate sitting-rooms for the large and small girls, an art-room, sewing-room, store-room, and toilet-room. In the rear is a large covered porch or gallery with tiled floor, which will be appreciated by the children in warm weather. A stairway from the porch leads down to the girls' play court. The boys' wing is practically a duplication of the girls'.

Leading from the boys' and girls' buildings, covered arcades, or galleries, as they are called in the South, connect with the dining-room, kitchen, and laundry buildings. In the kitchen building there are a bakery, a bread-room, a storeroom, and cold storage. The laundry building, on the first floor, has an ironing-room, together with a cooking school for the girls, including a separate stove-room, storeroom, etc. Owing to the sloping nature of the ground, the kitchen and laundry buildings will have full basements, containing a laundry under the ironing-room, and a natatorium under the kitchen, together with storerooms and such other rooms as are needed in connection with these departments. A cold-storage and ice-manufacturing plant will be placed in the basement, under the cold-storage room.

SECOND-FLOOR PLAN.

Stairways lead up to the second floor from both wings and in the centre building, those in the rear of the reception hall being intended for use in connection with the schoolrooms and chapel.

On the second floor there are eight schoolrooms, over the library and museum. The chapel is also on this floor, over the dining-room. An arched ceiling thirty-four feet high in the centre, supported by trusses, spans the chapel, and no columns will obstruct the view. A gallery runs



SECOND-FLOOR PLAN.

around three sides of the chapel, and will be suspended from the trusses, so as to have no columns below. In the front part of the centre building there is a sitting hall, and four teachers' or spare rooms, with toilet-rooms. In the girls' wing are rooms for matron and teachers, and dormitories for the little girls, with washroom and baths. In the rear is the hospital, so arranged that it can be shut off from the rest of the building in case of epidemic, and it is surrounded entirely by open space to allow plenty of air to circulate all around it. Besides the sick ward, the hospital contains a room for nurse, bathroom and kitchen, and individual rooms for the very sick. A separate hospital building is also contemplated.

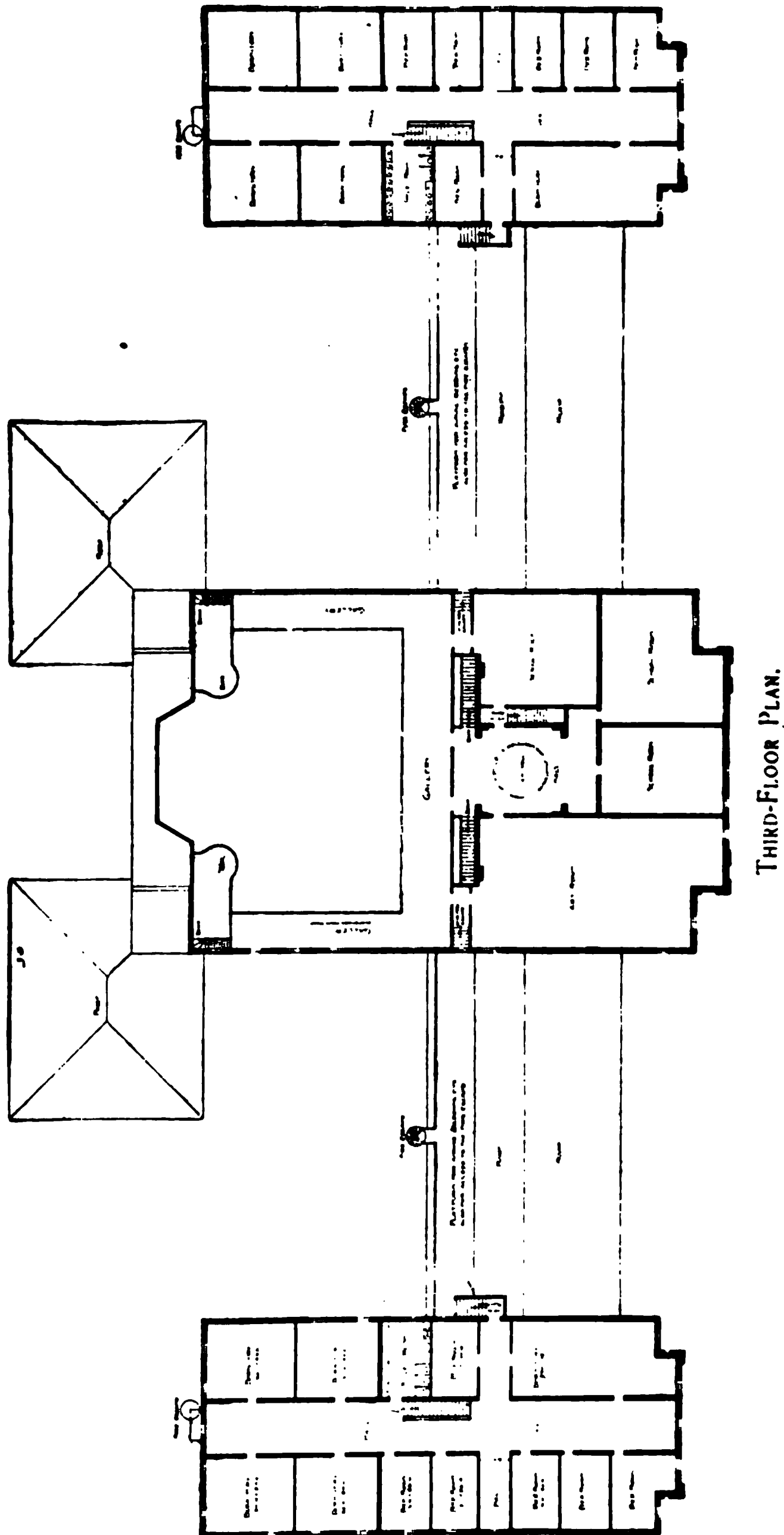
From the gallery a passage leads across a covered bridge to the general bath and trunk room in the laundry building. Adjoining these is the housekeeper's room and the linen-room, to which the clothes are raised by a dumb-waiter from the ironing-room below. The boys' side is arranged in substantially the same manner as the girls'.

The schoolrooms will be fourteen feet high, the second-floor bedrooms twelve feet high, while the first floor is fifteen feet high throughout. To make the schoolrooms more comfortable there will be sash in the inside partitions above the blackboards, so that when open the breeze may blow right through the rooms above the heads of the pupils.

THIRD-FLOOR PLAN.

In the third story there are four additional schoolrooms in the front part of the centre building, one of which is designed for an art-room. The chapel gallery is entered from this floor, being on a level with it at the doors.

The boys' and girls' wings on this floor are divided into bedrooms and dormitories, designed to accommodate from four to twelve pupils each. Roomy halls lengthwise



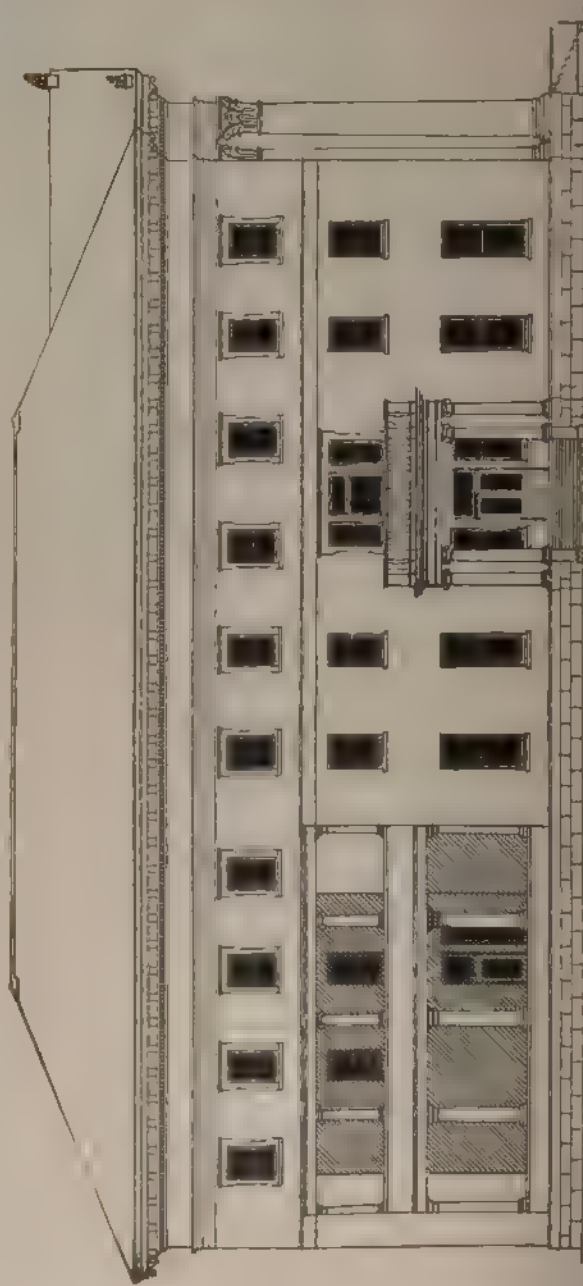
THIRD-FLOOR PLAN.

and crosswise will assist in the ventilation, and at the end of the long hall is placed a Kirker-Bender fire-escape. On the rear side of the roof, over the museum and library, is constructed a platform for airing bedding, so arranged that the clothes will not be visible from the ground. This platform also serves as a fire-escape, being accessible not only from the dormitories, but also from the centre of the building, and connecting with the ground by a spiral stairway. A stairway from the centre leads up to the dome, from which a fine view of the surrounding country may be obtained. The boys' and girls' wings are designed substantially alike.

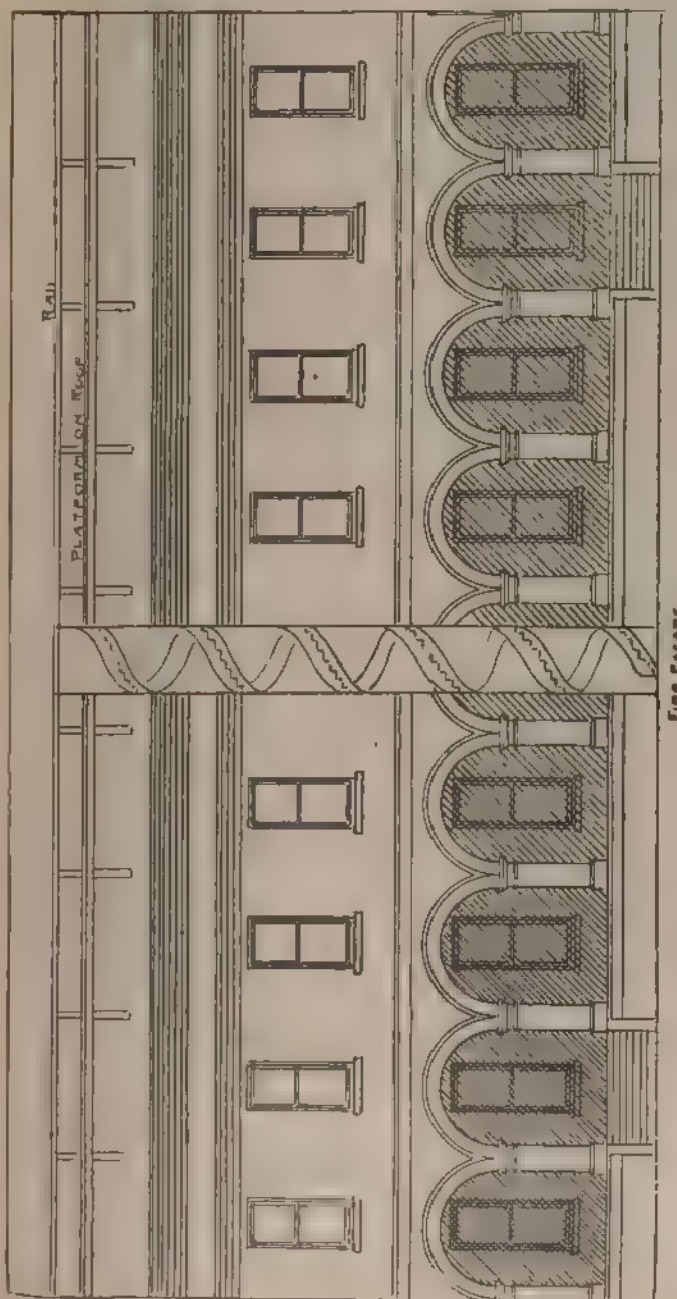
The interior finish will be in keeping with the exterior in appearance and durability. Partitions which come directly over one another in the several stories will be of brick. The boys' and girls' buildings will be constructed on the principle of slow burning construction, and made as secure as possible against fire. A hard wall plaster with cement base in the halls will be used. The wood-work will be oak in the principal places, and pine in others. The floors in the sitting-rooms and schoolrooms will be maple; in the dormitories hard pine; while those in the toilet-rooms will be tile.

The institution will be lighted by electricity from its own dynamos; it will have a system of electric clocks, house telephones, and the best modern appliances. The plumbing will be open and of a high grade. Heating will be by steam, and for ventilation a fan system is contemplated by which the air may not only be warmed in winter but also cooled in summer, if desired.

The building represented by the cuts is to be the centre building of a system. The complete plans contemplate a building for girls' dormitory at one end, and for boys' dormitory at the other, surrounded entirely by Ionic columns, and situated about one hundred feet from the main building, and connected with it by a covered corridor,



SIDE VIEW OF WING



REAR VIEW OF CONNECTING WING.
FINE ESCAPE

the roof of which is to be supported by a double row of Ionic columns.

The present plans and estimates provide, in addition to the main building, a building for heating and lighting plant, a dairy building and a barn, and a separate building for the colored department, which will be situated about one-fourth of a mile from the main building and be complete in itself, and so arranged that it can be added to from time to time as additional accommodations are required.

The plans above described were submitted in competition by Mr. Olof Hanson, the deaf architect of Faribault, Minnesota, and were formally adopted by the Board of Trustees, to be presented to the State Legislature in an endeavor to obtain an appropriation for securing new and much needed accommodations for the Institution.

MEMORY TRAINING AND THE TEACHING OF LANGUAGE.

HAVING observed one day that a class of second and third year pupils had an exceedingly vague understanding of the meaning of an assigned lesson in one of Cyr's readers, I remarked upon the fact to the teacher. He admitted that not much language was being assimilated from that particular lesson, but said that the children's memory was being trained in committing it. This appeared to him a good and sufficient reason for assigning it to them. Not a few teachers doubtless reason in the same way when they assign a language lesson to a primary class, without explaining the new words which are essential to the understanding of the lesson. A few persistent pupils may get the meaning by imposing on the patience of the teacher in charge of the study room; the rest go on and study without understanding.

According to the physiological psychologists, "memory is habit," and "habit is memory," and this conception of the nature of memory is emphasized as one of the most valuable and positive conclusions to be derived from a study of the physical basis of psychological phenomena. Memory is a tendency of nervous matter to act again exactly as it has acted before, a revivescence of nervous process, originally brought about by sensory excitation that produced persistent modifications of nerve states. It occurred to me that there was much food for reflection in judging the teacher's apology by the psychologist's conclusions. Unquestionably the teacher was partly right. A certain complex habit of mental action was being formed, as the pupil spelled off the words and his crayon formed them on the blackboard. According to his way of thinking, the pupil "knows" the lesson, as he glibly informs you. The whole teaching of psychology shows that the boy was forming a habit, through the exercise of certain definite paths of nervous energy, and repeated modes of association of the sensory and motor centres concerned in reproducing the words. But is this habit helpful or harmful?

It appears that such a habit is easily formed and may become exceedingly strong in the first years of a child's school life. Observation and experiment show that a child can easily be trained to remember a word or words by a circle of associations in which the true meaning and relationship of the word does not enter as a necessary element. With every word thus acquired he must be forming a habit of not imaging and distinguishing the ideas and concepts to be conveyed, and therefore the habit of not properly relating the thoughts expressed in successive sentences, though such synthesis is absolutely necessary to comprehension. In other words, is not the pupil forming a habit of *not doing* just that which it is the supreme end and aim of our language teaching to have him do?

Some may think that the habit of not doing a thing or

learning a thing in the best possible way will not seriously interfere when the right way is shown or known later on. But psychology and experience agree in overwhelming proof that, a habit of any kind once formed, definite circles of association by which sense images are recalled, when once fixed, are exceedingly difficult to alter. A chain of association has a strong tendency to end where it has ended most frequently before. For instance, through careless teaching in the first few years a child fails to associate with his idea of a sentence any necessity for a period at its end. The habit of not thinking of the period is formed; then, as I have observed, four or five years are required to blot out the traces of this habit. The correct habit might have been formed at first with one-tenth of the labor. As every teacher knows, mistakes in form that have been corrected hundreds of times and are still repeated by older pupils are due far more to habit than to lack of knowledge. Carelessness is in the main a lack of the will power and concentration of attention necessary to break the habit. Wrong habits of thought are more difficult to perceive, more elusive and protean in the forms which they assume, than habits of mechanical action, but are of proportionately greater importance in mental development and more difficult to correct. In training the memory, therefore, we should be extremely careful as to what habits or tendencies of thought we are establishing in the child mind.

Let us now return to the teacher's idea that by having a child memorize language not clearly understood the child's memory was being trained. It seems to me that the teacher was misled here by a false conception of the true nature of memory. He seemed to look upon it as an independent faculty which may be trained as such by special exercises. But is this true? If it is correct to think of memory as habit, as simply a body of innumerable tendencies to react again as they have reacted before under certain repeated external or internal stimuli, then

evidently to strengthen one set of tendencies does not of necessity strengthen the rest. There is little association between a tendency to remember sound and a tendency to remember form. Consequently a person's memory for sound may be marvellously cultivated, while his memory for form is so poor that he can scarcely recall the exact shape of a cow when he tries to draw it. A person's memory for color may be highly trained, while his memory of mathematical formulæ may be almost nil, or the reverse may be true.

It would seem, therefore, entirely appropriate, when one speaks of training the memory, to inquire, What kinds of memory? That depends entirely upon the kind of associations by which the objects of this memory are recalled. It may be a verbal memory in which the logical relations of the thoughts symbolized do not enter as an essential element. It may be a memory rendered highly sensitive to abstract relations of quantity, size, form, and direction, and therefore capable of dealing readily with mathematics. It may be a memory of color, of odor, of sound, of movements, or of emotions. According to the kind of memory trained, there must be more or less of a corresponding sensory training and enrichment of thought and vocabulary along the particular lines that are followed.

From this point of view it is evident that memory is of supreme importance. It alone enables us to pigeon-hole, as it were, the innumerable sensations and thought impressions daily pouring in upon the mind, and hold them subject to command, ready at all times to assist us in seeking out new relations, and to furnish us with accurate standards by which to judge all things. All experience rests upon memories of previous observations and sensations. The "scientific imagination," by which we proceed from known to unknown relations, depends directly upon the ability of the mind to recall and hold in the plane of consciousness distinct images of previously observed

objective conditions. All knowledge of language is made up of a series of memories. Clearly, then, it is the utmost folly to decry the training of memory. Indeed, a teacher's best thought should be devoted to a study of this subject. Teachers of the deaf especially need to understand clearly the relation of language teaching to the training of the memory, though many difficult questions are involved in seeking to determine this relation.

Assuming that the educational *summum bonum* for the deaf is a thorough command of good English, we may consider three factors essential in securing this end: First, clear and distinct imagery, percepts and concepts having accurate correspondence to the objects and conditions which have given rise to them; second, accurate knowledge of the form and order of the words or groups of words which compose the verbal symbols of thought; third, deeply impressed, abiding and immediate association between the mental image or concept and the corresponding verbal symbol.

The first factor primarily involves the sensory training of deaf children and should receive much more attention than it does, though I believe great progress has been made in this direction of late years. The kindergarten directly emphasizes this factor, and will in time, I hope, be considered an essential part of every considerable school for the deaf, and will necessitate the employment of thoroughly trained teachers. If the hearing child needs sensory training, the deaf child needs it far more. The little hearing child, through the conversation of his elders, has his attention called to objects—their colors, qualities, forms, etc. He is an inexhaustible question box, and each time his attention is called to a new object, quality, or form, his observation is directed to distinguishing it from others of like character, and in this process of concentrated attention and corrected observation he is receiving sensory training of great value. The little deaf child over-

hears no suggestive conversation, his mental questioning receives no suggestive answers and counter questions that lead him to observe more carefully and distinguish more accurately. The consequence is that when he comes to learn a word such as "bark," it is entirely possible that he may never have had his attention called to the nature and characteristics of the bark of trees. Where mental imagery is thus absent or very vague, elaborate explanation by the teacher absorbs valuable time and is of little avail in promoting clearness of thought and accuracy of association. Such a lack of sensory training must be a great check upon the ability to recall vivid imagery and the development of clear concepts, and therefore a serious check upon the easy and ready acquisition of language. These results ultimately exercise a far-reaching deterrent influence upon the child's mental development in all directions, especially in the cultivation of imagination, which, we are told time and again, is so notably lacking in the deaf.

The second factor in giving a command of language depends for its effectiveness upon what we usually call verbal memory. It is the most easily developed of all. Deaf pupils, as a rule, "know" a far greater number of words than they can use intelligently. Usually they have the faculty of memorizing language verbatim wonderfully developed as compared with hearing children. They are good spellers and can always learn the forms of words a great deal faster than their uses. Since we find among all classes of children, and even among educated persons, this tendency to acquire the forms of words without putting forth the effort necessary to acquire at the same time distinct ideas of the objects of thought represented, it would seem wise to guard against the tendency at every point of our language teaching, and carefully to analyze our work with reference to possible error in this respect.

The third factor in the teaching of language, correct *association* of the symbols of thought with the correspond-

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power of the weaker mind may be enriched by the acquisition of new concepts defined in terms of those already familiar. Precision and accuracy of thought and clearness and exactness in verbal expression are so wholly interdependent because neither can reach great excellence except by the agency of the other. Both, therefore, must progress together by the perfecting of associations common to many minds as indicated above. Clearly, then, the memory training which the deaf child needs above all else is that which will enable him to retain and recall the *associations* of words with the thoughts for which they stand.

In practical class work this principle may be applied and emphasized or disregarded in a great variety of ways. Clearly, the teacher should strive to present all new language under circumstances and conditions that bring it into immediate association with the corresponding concepts. Careful study of the first language acquisition of little hearing children will show us what these conditions are. A primary application of the principle is insistence upon the use of simple English, especially by the teacher to the pupil, at all times to the utmost possible extent. In spoken language one of the most strongly and constantly effective influences in cementing the thought to the words is the relative emphasis given by the tones of the human voice. The teacher of the deaf should never forget this fact, and should strive to devise means of substituting an emphasis that will appeal to the eye. In this respect oral instruction and manual spelling have a great advantage over any form of instruction by writing. To allow a child to memorize written or printed language before the thought contained therein is clearly understood must certainly weaken the tendency to seek out and retain the vital associations so necessary to progress in language work, and is therefore a direct violation of the principle under discussion. To give an elaborate explanation of a concept in

the sign-language tends to form associations between the concept and the explanatory signs, instead of with the words with which it should be associated. Naturally the child will remember the vigorous signs, presenting vivid motor images in relation to the thought, far more readily than he will remember the words in that relation.

A further practical conclusion to which these considerations lead is that it is much better to delay the study of history and geography in text-books for a year or two, and to confine the child to talking and writing of information that may be had by direct observation, than to confuse his language by strenuous efforts to have him derive information from books that are a maze of mysteries to him, requiring voluminous explanation.

In teaching according to the ideas set forth, abundant facilities are required, and particularly a museum, such as Mr. Dobyns describes in the last Report of the Mississippi Institution. Speaking of the necessity of this, he says: "So thoroughly am I imbued with this idea that, at the risk of making an extravagant statement, I think a State would be justified in expending as much in the building and equipping of a museum as you propose to ask for an entirely new plant." By the use of material thus prepared at hand, by close observation of what is going on about the school of special interest to the children, and by a wise use of the ever changing museum which nature affords at all seasons of the year, pupils can be given language lessons full of life and interest. These, when thoroughly understood and associated in the child's memory with vivid imagery, can be memorized with profit and comparative ease. Such lessons train the child in habits of careful observation, and train him to recall with precision what he has observed. Complete education would then consist in such memory training in early years, together with careful motor training, as will enable the child to transform the full force and effect of thought into

equivalent action with ease and dispatch, and finally a thorough training of the moral and reasoning faculties, based upon the material acquired by observation and action.

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THE THEORY OF EDUCATIONAL SLOYD.

SO MUCH is spoken and written about industrial and manual training in connection with the common-school education, that to a superficial observer it may seem that the subject is well nigh exhausted. Such is not the opinion of the writer. On the contrary, he believes that manual training has not as yet received all the attention from educators which it justly merits.

In the shop, as well as in the schoolroom, certain methods of instruction give better results than others, and it rests with the instructor to employ such methods within his reach as will give the most satisfactory results in his efforts to create good mechanics and artisans out of the boys under his charge. Here, as everywhere else, a great deal depends on how the learners are started on their work. Are we to make intelligent, industrious, and skilful workmen out of the boys under our instruction? If so, we should let them enter the industrial world through the broadest and loftiest portal, and let their first steps be trodden on the smoothest highway, amid scenery as attractive as possible. But if we give the pupil a start by the most disagreeable work at our command, we shall be sure to discourage him at the outset, and he will become a slow, dull, and listless worker, developing defects that may follow him through life. Here, if anywhere, the maxim holds good, "Let the house be built, and the foundation thereof be strongly laid."

How, then, should pupils in our schools for the deaf be started to work? By an elementary course in manual training, especially adapted for this purpose; in other words, a course in educational sloyd. "What is 'sloyd'?" somebody may ask. The Century Dictionary defines sloyd as "A system of manual training which originated in Sweden. It is not confined to wood-working, as is frequently supposed (though this is the branch most commonly taught), but is work with the hands and with simple tools. The system is adapted to the needs of different grades of the elementary schools, and is designed to develop the pupils mentally and physically. Its aim is, therefore, not special technical training, but general development and the laying of a foundation for future industrial growth."

From the above definition it will be seen that sloyd is applied to educational purposes, and is not to be confounded with the work of the artisan. Generally, the "sloyder" does not practise his art as a trade, but merely as a change from some other occupation. His work also differs from that of the artisan in the tools used, in the manner of executing the work, and in the articles produced. Another great difference between the two is that in sloyd purely economical considerations do not come forward so prominently as in the work of the artisan, and the former is, therefore, much better adapted as a means of education.

The Minnesota School for the Deaf has just added a Sloyd Department to its other branches of instruction. It has been in operation since last November. At present twenty-five boys are enrolled. They range in age from ten to thirteen years, and have not yet entered upon a regular trade. They are divided into three classes. The time of instruction averages about seven hours a week. The sloyd room is of ample size for its purpose, being 36 feet long, 30 feet wide, and 11 feet high, and is well lighted, heated, and ventilated. An essential part of

its equipment is a series of sloyd models. These are arranged in such sequence that each model has at least one more feature than the one preceding, and to make it requires as many new tools and exercises. This graded arrangement has great value in stimulating varied mental faculties by means of varied physical movements, and it tends to increase the interest of the little boys in the work.

Useful models, such as flower sticks, penholders, hammer handles, etc., are preferable to worthless ones, and that for many reasons. If the pupil does not understand the purpose of a model, he will not respect it, and his interest in the work will decline in consequence. For example, the exercise of boring a series of holes in a piece of wood is an exercise merely, and is forgotten as soon as it is done; but if the holes are bored as one step in the making of a towel roller, to which the boy will return at the next lesson, and which, when completed, he may carry home to be used by his mother, then the model becomes a source of abiding interest and thought. This, in turn, will have the advantage of stimulating at home an appreciation of the value of the school. In order to encourage a healthy interest in the work too much importance cannot be attached to objects of general use. Some one has truly said that "the boy who breaks is the same boy, ill-taught and ill-mannered, as the one who makes; and the boy who breaks most is the boy who would make most, had his energies been properly directed."

Sloyd is based on drawing. A good proportion between drawing, exercise, and tool must be maintained in order to insure success. The ability to understand and to make accurate working-drawings must be carefully cultivated. To that end every boy is required to make a working-drawing before he begins to work on the model. This drawing is made from a model already finished. Then he must make his own model, to the exact measurement

of the drawing, and depend upon it as much as possible. Under no circumstances should the "sloyder" be allowed to make anything without first making an outline of the intended object on paper. By this method the little boy will acquire a habit of accuracy, self-reliance, and industry, and his creative faculty will be developed to the highest possible degree. The exercise of the muscles follows in the making of the model. When a model has thus been finished the pupil's mind and body have undergone a series of healthy exercises; the former by the making of the working-drawing, the latter in the correct use of various tools in constructing the model. The boy himself feels the better and happier for having made it; much more than if, during the time of work, he had been out playing or doing mischief.

Another great good will be the immediate result of the sloyd course. After a boy has completed a few models, the instructor will notice whether he has any special aptitude for woodwork. If such be the case, he can recommend that that boy learn the cabinet-maker's trade while at school. Before the boy has made a trial, in nine cases out of ten he does not know what trade he likes best. After selecting one, he may discover that he has made a mistake, when often it is too late to correct it. In that manner many boys lose years of their best time before they know what handicraft they are best fitted for. In trying one trade after another, part of their allotted time at school will have passed away, and they stand ready to graduate before they know much of a trade.

Form study is neglected a good deal in manual training. This is shown by the fact that pupils whose work on plane surfaces is accurate and admirable are often unable to execute, or even appreciate, a fine curve. This remark holds good about proportion as well. Sloyd models are designed with special reference to training the eye to the subtleties of form and proportion, a training that is very essential in the making of a good mechanic.

Should a series of models and exercises, arranged beforehand, be rigidly adhered to during the sloyd course? Far from it. A variety of supplementary models are necessary, in order to provide for the individual taste and capacity of the pupils. Not infrequently does it happen that a boy invents entirely new models which testify both as to original thoughts and ingenious ideas on the part of the young inventor. Such efforts on the part of the little ones should always be encouraged. Were all his own thoughts and ideas rejected by the instructor, the boy would soon be discouraged in the work.

From what has been said above it will be seen that the aim of educational sloyd is to utilize the educative force which lies in well-directed bodily labor. But the skeptic may object: "The same results might be obtained by sending the boy directly to the shop." Not so. The shop is a manufactory, pure and simple. And while the muscles may be developed, and the rudiments of a trade learned there, the development of the mind necessarily lags behind. Besides, the foreman of a shop is usually a very busy man, and it is impossible for him to give proper attention to new boys who enter upon his trade with absolutely no idea of what work is. Let every boy take a sloyd course before he enters upon a regular trade. There he will be started to work. There, also, he will acquire a liking and respect for bodily labor; habits of accuracy and independence in his work; increase of physical strength and development of the mental power. The good results of such a course cannot be over-estimated.

PETER N. PETERSON,

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THE STUDY HOUR.

IN the work of educating the deaf the teacher meets with a great many perplexing questions which are difficult to solve. He encounters obstacles which require skill, judgment, and tact to surmount. If he is thoroughly conscientious he will use every effort to overcome all obstacles that lie in his path, and under all circumstances he will consider the best interests of those committed to his charge.

Among the perplexing questions is the study hour; how it shall be conducted to serve the best interests of the pupil. I do not hesitate to say that the study hour as it is now conducted in many schools does not serve the purpose for which it was intended, and the benefits derived from it are not as great as they should be. There are a few things which I consider requisite for successfully carrying on the study hour.

1. *The pupil must be capable of studying.* In some schools beginning pupils are compelled to go to the study hall, and in many cases these pupils are little more than babies, whose capability for study is almost *nil*. The rising hour for these little ones in the various institutions ranges from five to six o'clock, and when study hour comes they should be in their beds. Instead they march to the study hall, and as many of them are simply worn out after thirteen hours of work and play, they are physically incapable of sitting up and so they drop asleep with the gaslight shining in their eyes. Those little ones who are possessed of more strength and animal spirits, having nothing to do, try to amuse themselves as best they can, and the teacher on duty spends much of his time endeavoring to keep them quiet. He is unable to devote sufficient time to the supervision of the older pupils and consequently they suffer. Their attention is

constantly distracted by the movements of the little ones. Besides being a source of distraction and an injury to the progress of these advanced pupils, the presence of the little ones in the study hall is an injury to themselves. Having nothing to do, they naturally fall into habits of indolence and listlessness and acquire a disregard for the object of the hour. Much of the "book nursing," inattention, and lack of concentration which we observe in them in later years is due largely to this cause. In many cases these habits cling to them through their entire school course.

In an article in the *Ladies' Home Journal* some time ago Mrs. Lew Wallace declared that the slaughter of innocents by Herod's order was as nothing compared to that of the modern American Juggernaut—our boasted public schools. In other words, she claims that a large number of our young, bright public-school children are killed every year by mental overwork. She thinks that after the little ones have been confined in the classroom between five and six hours every day they should have no lesson to study at night. Though the picture Mrs. Wallace here presents is greatly overdrawn when applied to schools for the deaf, yet I think there is enough in it to give us all food for thought. It calls our attention to the fact that the immature brains of children cannot be expected to stand the strain to which they are frequently subjected. Education is crowded on them too fast, and it is often years before they thoroughly digest the ideas which are implanted in their minds. While we do not kill the little ones in our schools in the way Mrs. Wallace describes, yet I think we injure them mentally and physically to a greater or less extent by placing them in the study hall during their first year at school.

2. *The pupil must know how to study.* On looking over the Courses of Study of a number of institutions I fail to see any provision made for teaching the child how

to study. Many teachers either overlook this point or attach no importance to it. They must surely think that this knowledge will come to the pupil as a kind of second nature without any effort on their part, or else that the supervisor or teacher on duty in the study hall will attend to that branch of the work. No matter how capable a pupil may be of studying, if he does not know *how*, he will accomplish very little real work. He must be taught how to study, and the proper place for teaching this is in the classroom.

3. *The pupil should study understandingly.* It is not enough for the child to be capable of studying and to know how it should be done, but he must also have a clear understanding of the subject-matter to be mastered. Many teachers who work diligently in the classroom five hours fail to make proper provision for the evening study hour, which is perhaps the most important hour of the day. They hastily assign lessons just as the bell rings at the close of school, leaving the pupil to find out as best he can the meaning of the subject-matter of the lesson. During the study hour, if the pupil wants to know the meaning of the words in the lesson, etc., the teacher on duty is kept busy going from one table to another, or from one row of desks to another, answering questions and explaining words and phrases. Now, one can easily imagine that this is not conducive to the best work. The class in History will naturally be watching the teacher while he is explaining the Geography lesson, and *vice versa*. This state of things ought not to exist. All the meanings of new and difficult words and phrases in the lessons should be carefully explained to the classes before leaving the classroom. With younger pupils a lesson developed in the classroom is the best. With the senior classes it is not necessary to go into minute explanations. As a rule, it is better to let them find out the meaning of a large portion of the subject-matter of

the lesson for themselves. It teaches them independence of thought, and they perhaps appreciate more what they have labored over themselves.

4. *The pupil should be interested in his study.* Unless there is an interest taken in the study the other qualifications stand for very little. The teacher should use every means possible to this end. He himself must show an interest in the pupils' studies. He must take great pains in assigning the lesson and also in its recitation. Carelessness in doing either will most probably result in careless work on the part of the pupil. Use every incentive possible for carefulness. The system of marking for daily recitation is very good in this connection.

There is a certain class of pupils that study carelessly, and come into the classroom in the morning without knowing their lessons. These need special treatment. One plan which I use with my classes has proved to be very beneficial. On one of the large slates in a conspicuous part of the classroom I keep an "Honor Roll" and a "Black List." All those who have perfect lessons have their names placed on the honor roll, and all those whose marks fall below a certain per cent. have their names recorded on the black list. This stimulates the pupils to do better work, and creates a healthy rivalry among them, and a determination to have their names recorded on the honor roll. Each one strives hard to escape the disgrace of having his name on the black list. But the teacher must exercise much care and discrimination with regard to the intellectual capacity of each pupil. He must not mark the dull pupil as closely as he would a bright, intelligent one. One method suggested by Mr. Rogers, Superintendent of the Kentucky School, is to have all the pupils who fail to study their lessons properly assemble in the study hall each afternoon while the other pupils are at play. Each teacher in the school takes charge of these pupils in turn, and makes sure that

they study during that hour. Of course, where failure results from incapacity to learn the child should be exempt from this punishment.

The length of the evening study should depend on the age of the pupil, the length of time he has been in school, and his intellectual capacity. If we take it for granted that the pupil is not required to study during his first year, he might be allowed to study half an hour each night during the second year. (In some cases it is preferable to wait until the third year before requiring the child to study.) The following year he should be allowed one hour for evening study, and until the more advanced classes are reached this time will suffice. For the senior classes at least two hours each evening should be devoted to study. In the Kentucky School twelve boys and twelve girls from the advanced classes, who serve as monitors, have the privilege of studying in their own rooms for two hours each evening. They are put on their honor and they study without supervision. This plan works well in every respect.

A large number of teachers object to the introduction of books, newspapers, or magazines into the study hall. I see no objection to them, but, on the contrary, would encourage their use in every way possible. In assigning lessons the teacher generally gives enough to suit the average ability of the class. Now, what are the bright pupils to do after they have studied their lessons—sit idle and “nurse” their books, or read some good paper or magazine? I should say, by all means the latter. It is most profitable to encourage the reading habit in every way possible. Only those who prepare their lessons carefully and thoroughly should be entitled to such privileges. Just as soon as the pupil begins to neglect his study the privilege should be withdrawn.

Great care should be observed in the selection of a study room. It should be large, cheerful, well lighted, and

well ventilated. Many study rooms which I have seen have been so badly lighted that pupils were unable to study properly without injury to their eyes.

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THE FIRST YEAR IN HISTORY.

BEFORE studying history, the lives of a number of historical characters should first be familiar to the scholars, so that when these characters make their appearance in the course of this study they will be greeted as old friends. It is pleasant to see the eager look of interest and the desire of the child to tell all that he remembers on the introduction of one of these familiar personages, and whenever such interest is excited we may be sure that the method we are pursuing is along the proper line.

History can be made one of the most fascinating studies, but, in order to be so, the beginning of it must be set forth in an attractive manner. With little children, anything presented to their minds with the aid of pictures is more acceptable than in any other form, so in commencing the history of the United States, for instance, let us, in the first place, have drawn on the blackboard a large map including the United States, the Northern Atlantic, and that portion of Europe from which the early settlers came to our country. Countries of the old world should have names of places marked upon them, but there should be no writing on the map of the United States, thus showing the relative conditions of settlement at that time. Then should be given a talk on the rude state of the country at that early period, with descriptions of the Indians and their customs. Pictures illustrating anything pertaining to their mode of living would be useful.

Then comes the story of Columbus. Make it graphic. Show on the map the place of his birth; describe his struggles; follow up on the map his journey to Spain, and after his success there show the class pictures of his ships, and point to the place from which he started on his westward venture. In short, make the children feel that they are taking the voyage with him, starting out with the buoyant hopefulness, followed by the disappointment with the delay, the despondency, and then finally the intense joy of all on finding land. Have pictures of San Salvador and of the landing of Columbus to show them.

If this much is given for the first lesson, that of the next day will be eagerly welcomed.

After the coming of the Puritans, tell the story of Miles Standish and make interesting that of the first Thanksgiving. Take each step in this way, introducing anecdotes connected with the historical events and illustrating as freely as possible, thus making history something more than the average child considers it—a collection of dates and dry facts.

The map should remain on the blackboard, the names of important places successively settled being filled in until it is as we have it now.

If this course is pursued throughout the year, there will be but few scholars who at the end of that time will not claim history as their favorite study.

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REPORT OF A VISIT TO THE UNITED STATES
AND THE BRITISH ISLES TO STUDY THE
EDUCATION OF DEAF CHILDREN AND OTHER
MATTERS PERTAINING TO THE DEAF, MARCH
17 TO JULY 15, 1899.*—II.

AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

1. *The Wright-Humason School*, 42 West 76th street, New York City.

This is a school for the children of well-to-do people, and \$1,000 a year is paid for instruction, board, and lodging. The number of pupils is limited to about twenty, but they are of all grades of intellect, except the really weak-minded. I saw one or two that gave the impression of standing rather low in intelligence. The pupils are received preferably when young, down to three years of age, and remain at school, if they show sufficient capability, until they are prepared to take the entrance examination for some college or university.

The "word and sentence method" is used during the earliest instruction in the kindergarten department. The pupils are taught to recognize words and short sentences first by lip-reading and then by writing, before they are taught to pronounce the different sounds, and they are also allowed to try to imitate the teachers' speech in their own way before the teaching of sounds is begun. They learn to recognize the different words and short sentences on the blackboard before they are taught the form and meaning of single letters.

I asked if the acquisition of what may be called a "wild pronunciation" in the kindergarten exercises did not interfere with the children's acquiring a correct pronunciation. The reply was that normal children also be-

* Continued from the February number of the *Annals*, page 141.

gin with imperfect and incorrect pronunciation ; no difficulty had been experienced in giving the deaf children a correct pronunciation when they began practising simple sounds.

2. *The New York Institution*, West 162d-165th streets, New York City, E. H. Currier, M. A., Principal.

This school is one of the largest in America, as well as one of the oldest, having 460 pupils and having been established in 1818. It is extraordinarily well equipped in the way of buildings and school apparatus, while its location in a park overlooking the Hudson is splendid.

The school has a museum of objects to be used in instruction, something which I found at several other American schools, even at small ones which had sufficient means. The object which is wanted for instruction is brought from the museum down to the schoolroom, and after being used is returned to its place.

Instruction is by the Combined System in this form: all the pupils are given instruction in speech, and are carried as far as circumstances permit, while finger-spelling is the prevailing means of communication in the classroom. A few years ago signs were used in teaching, but this has gradually been changed. Instruction in speech was first introduced, and signs have recently been proscribed from the schoolroom. But signs continue to be the customary means of communication not only among the pupils, but between teachers and pupils outside of the schoolroom. The boys are dressed in uniform, give a military salute, and are called cadets.

The pupils remain in school, as a rule, from ten to twelve years (from 5-8 till 17-20 years of age), and in the highest classes, called grammar classes, the pupils possess considerable knowledge. There is a pupils' library and a reading-room which is well patronized. As in many other American schools, newspapers are provided for the older pupils to read.

The classification of pupils is by promotion upwards according to ability, *i. e.*, the best are selected according to the number of their "points," and are allowed to form classes by themselves.

Both boys and girls receive instruction in cooking. The principal himself is quite an accomplished cook. The training of the boys in cooking is partly explained by the fact that male cooks are much in demand in New York, but the principal reason is the persistent endeavor throughout to make the pupils independent as far as possible. It is said that the pupils attain considerable proficiency in the culinary art.

The boys are, besides, instructed in various trades. I noticed printing, carpentry, shoemaking, and tailoring. The girls receive instruction in various kinds of handiwork, which here, as in many other places, is very systematically arranged. The printing office is exceedingly well equipped. As the pupils usually leave school at about twenty, even those who are in school less than ten years,—since many enter at ten, twelve, and even fourteen years of age,—it is necessary to give them instruction in some trade, if they are not to become too old before they learn to earn their bread.

The school has a large garden under cultivation in which the pupils assist.

3. *The New York Institution for Improved Instruction*, 902-924 Lexington avenue, New York City.

This school, which in its day was the pioneer of oral instruction in New York City, has been since the retirement of its former principal, Mr. David Greene, under the direction of Mr. Mitchell. The latter has introduced the common German method of articulation instruction, instead of the "word method" which prevailed while Mr. Greene was principal. As the school was in a state of transition I found it advisable to remain only about two hours. The number of pupils is about two hundred.

I also called upon Mr. Greene, who has a private school near Madison Square. He is of the opinion that backward pupils cannot possibly be taught more by any other method than by the Oral.

4. *The American School at Hartford, Connecticut.*

This school has old-fashioned but roomy and comfortable buildings, situated on high and spacious grounds, surrounded by suburban houses. There are about 150 pupils. The principal, Dr. Job Williams, informed me that all pupils are given a trial in articulation, and that about 70 per cent. are taught to speak, while the attempt is abandoned by the other 30 per cent. The means of communication, however, is finger-spelling and writing, and signs are used by all outside the classroom. There was only partial classification according to ability. The highest classes gave evidence of possessing considerable knowledge. Here, as in many other American schools, the most advanced pupils receive instruction in such subjects as natural philosophy, chemistry, and popular mental philosophy. On the whole this school gives good evidence of what can be done by the Combined System.

The original name of the school, since its establishment in 1817, was the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, but a few years ago a radical change was made in that the word "Asylum," passing by the word "Institution," was changed to "School," and the last two words "and Dumb" were omitted. A bill embodying the change was laid before the Connecticut legislature, together with a petition from the earlier pupils of the school favoring the change. During the last ten years many American schools, Oral as well as Combined and Manual schools, have made similar changes in their names. The word "Deaf" is now considered the proper term to designate the class as a whole, while "deaf-mutes" designates a subdivision. The latter word is used where one would otherwise have to say "deaf and dumb."

5. *The Clarke School*, Northampton, Massachusetts.

This school, opened in 1867 by Miss Harriet B. Rogers, who adopted the Oral method upon the recommendation of the Hon. Gardiner G. Hubbard, father of Mrs. Alexander Graham Bell, may be said to be the pioneer of Oral schools in the United States, so far as permanent results are considered. The school has about 150 pupils and is now conducted by Miss Caroline A. Yale. The corps of instruction consists almost entirely of ladies, and the school has considerable wealth. Instruction in the youngest classes is by the "element method." The principal rejects the "word and sentence method" as an unnecessary roundabout way. Here, as elsewhere, in opposition to the advocates of the "word and sentence method," stress is laid on the fact that deaf children, when they enter school, are much farther advanced, as regards mental development, than normal children when the latter unconsciously or half consciously receive the first impressions of spoken words, and that therefore the mode of teaching the deaf children should be different. This objection certainly has much weight where the pupils on entering school are not very young.

In the highest classes of this school, instruction is given in natural philosophy, chemistry, some mathematics, and mental philosophy. During my presence there one of these classes discussed the topics of the day, and, among other things, the pupils expressed their views about the Peace Conference of the Czar. New inventions and discoveries are also subjects for discussion in the classroom. The library and reading-room are abundantly supplied with books and daily papers.

One peculiarity of the Northampton School is that there are no large dormitories. Instead the pupils sleep in small rooms containing at the most four in a room. The larger pupils have a separate room for each. The classes here, as in most other schools, are about the same

size as in Europe. The Manual schools seemed to have a few, but not many, more pupils in each class than the Oral schools.

The Northampton School has separate buildings for the primary, intermediate, and grammar departments.

6. *The Western New York Institution*, Rochester, New York.

This school, which is under the direction of Dr. Z. F. Westervelt and contains about 150 pupils, is divided into a kindergarten department (in a separate building) and the school proper. It is one of the most remarkable, and, I will add, one of the best conducted schools I have seen.

The method followed is this: speech for all and finger-spelling for all,—signs being totally excluded both in and out of school. Even the dumbest are taught speech, and even the brightest learn the manual alphabet, and use both.

In the kindergarten department the “word and sentence method” was used on trial at the time of my visit, but the principal did not think it of any special advantage. He was disposed to return to the “element method.”

My chief argument against the use of the manual alphabet was that it interfered with speech-reading. The principal, however, was of the opinion that this was more than counterbalanced by the fact that reading finger-spelling was more satisfactory and reliable than speech-reading. I will make an extract from his written explanation of the fundamental principles which he follows.

Dr. Westervelt calls attention to the fact that the pupils learn the written form of the language much quicker when they have the finger alphabet to help them,—which is an important consideration, especially where the difference between written and spoken language is so great as in English-speaking countries. He did not feel satisfied with the language that Oral schools gave their pupils. Manual spelling is really writing in the air and to a large

extent has the character of speech. It can hold the eye much more rapidly and convey thought more distinctly. Therefore he found that the life of the pupils, so to speak, is made richer by the possession of the three modes of communication,—speech, finger-spelling, and writing. On the other hand, the sign-language, he contends, narrows the soul which is confined thereto,—and the average deaf are confined to it when this language is allowed in school. Lip-reading alone is too great a task, and it must be supplemented by finger-spelling and writing. When a pupil has acquired a large vocabulary through reading and finger-spelling, he can readily become proficient in spoken language, and learn to use it more freely than if speech-reading to begin with is based on a limited vocabulary.

This method,—first a written vocabulary, then speech and lip-reading,—is considered by Dr. Westervelt the best for the dull as well as for the bright.

Dr. Westervelt regards the finger alphabet as a help to speech, although, as he plainly points out, it may become detrimental to speech unless properly looked after.

How much of the success of the instruction in this school is due to the eminent qualifications of Dr. Westervelt as teacher, principal, and leader, and how much should be credited to the method itself, it is impossible to say, as this method is not used at any other school. But intense work is done at the Rochester School. In the High Class, instruction is even given in French. It seems that the principal has succeeded in keeping the evil influence of signs out of his school.

That pupils from the Rochester School, when they enter the deaf-mute communities in the large cities, like all other deaf, learn the sign-language, proves nothing, since all, even normal persons, who would mingle with the deaf in the cities are compelled to learn this language.

Another peculiarity of the Rochester School may be

mentioned; each teacher does not teach a class, but a subject. All the classes in each department receive instruction from different teachers in succession. This system is carried out in its purity. Dr. Westervelt is of the opinion that each teacher can do best in his favorite subject, and the pupils have the pleasure of spending at least an hour a day with the teacher whom they like best, which may never be the case under the class system. It is also refreshing for both teachers and pupils to meet new faces.

The time schedule is also unusual. Instruction in each subject is given only from thirty to forty minutes at a time. In the kindergarten department instruction begins at 9.05. At 9.40 the class goes to another teacher; at 10.05 to a third. There is a recess from 10.40 to 11.20; afterwards school till 11.55, and then till 12.30. Then the noon-day rest till 2 o'clock; then school till 2.40 and till 3.20; and, finally, till 4, when it closes for the day. These hours include also sloyd, manual training, and drawing. On Saturday instruction is also given in these departments, but only till 12.30. Kindergarten exercises also take place on Sundays from 3 till 5, since in this department the main thing is to keep teachers and pupils steadily together, but, as much of the instruction is in the form of play, the work for the children is not so great as one might judge from the time schedule.

In the other departments,—Preparatory, Primary, Grammar, and High Class,—instruction is given from 8.30 to 9.10; then till 9.50; till 10.40; 11.10; 11.50; and till 12.30. Then there is noon-day rest till 2, after which the work is continued till 4 in three sections of 40 minutes each. All subjects, literary and others, are included within this time. The literary subjects have two-thirds of the time, or four hours.

Saturday is a holiday, as in all American schools. It is devoted to play and recreation.

Dr. Westervelt explained that this system of rotation has been used by him for twenty-two years.

Another curious feature in this school is that each of the more backward pupils has assigned to him one of the brighter pupils in the upper classes as a coach. It is the duty of these coaches, outside of school hours, constantly to talk to the backward ones both orally and by finger-spelling, but never in signs. The principal said that in this way the language of the backward pupils was developed in a high degree.

The school has common dormitories, but those of the older pupils are divided up to form, so to speak, small rooms. In the new kindergarten building an excellent arrangement exists by which the towels, comb, brush, soap, etc., of each pupil, or rather of every two pupils, can be pulled down from a sort of cabinet and by raising it again made to disappear. Here, as in most American schools, excellent provision is made for everything required to promote the cleanliness of the pupils; there are lavatories with hot and cold water, and splendidly equipped bathrooms, etc.

The girls' instruction in sewing, etc., was especially systematic and complete.

7. The Day-Schools in Chicago.

The city schools in Chicago have existed for many years. They are distributed evenly over the city, and originally all were Manual schools. A few years ago, however, they were reorganized, and it was decided that the parents of the children should have the right to decide which method they preferred for their children. At present the total number of schools is eleven, of which four are Manual and seven Oral schools. All are located in rooms of common school buildings. The number of pupils in the Manual schools is about 30 or 40; in the Oral schools, about 120, of whom about 40 are in a single school. Where the Oral method is used it is

in its pure form, signs being excluded. The "word and sentence method" is used in the articulation instruction, with the variation, however, that instruction in sounds is begun almost immediately. I was informed that the brightest of the pupils, on completing the course in the day-schools, continued in the manual-training schools. These do not, as might be supposed from the name, give instruction merely in manual training, but are really advanced schools and give instruction in many literary subjects, such as French, German, and Latin. The Oral schools, notwithstanding the large number of pupils, are quite new, the oldest being only three and a half years old at the time of my visit, and thus far only private pupils of the principal, Miss McCowen, have entered the above-mentioned advanced schools for hearing pupils.

My surmise that the hearing children would be apt to use signs to the deaf whom they met out of school was confirmed. It was added, however, that this tendency had been so far suppressed that no serious inconvenience was noticeable.

8. *The McCowen Oral School*, 6550 Yale avenue, Chicago.

This school of twenty or thirty pupils is an excellent example of what can be done with the Oral method when practised in a small school, and when instruction begins at an early age.

Pupils are received, if so desired, down to two years of age. When I was there, however, the youngest was six years old. They begin to learn language through play in the kindergarten. In these plays, oddly enough, piano-playing had an important place. When a teacher played the piano, the pupils laid their hands on the instrument and tried as well as they could to follow the music by feeling. Then they tried to keep time with the music. Miss McCowen was of the opinion that it is of advantage in oral instruction that the pupils should have some idea

of time and rhythm. During the kindergarten exercises the teacher talked to the pupils all the time. Miss McCowen said that both methods, the "word method" and the "element method," should be used together as far as practicable, but that she would not wait until the children had learned the sounds before giving them the meaning of words.

As regards the pupils' continuing their studies in schools for the hearing, Miss McCowen spoke very moderately. Not all deaf children could take that course, and the teachers who should instruct them in the public schools must be willing to give them special attention.

In this school I noticed a new kind of "blackboard," made of glass. The glass was a trifle rough and arranged with either dark or light background. These boards are pleasant to write on with crayon and easy to keep clean. Remarkable to say, the white writing is particularly plain on a background having the color usually found in our opaque *entreglas*.

As in other American schools, I was here surprised at the strong and neat handwriting of even the small children. In America little ones of five years can often write as neatly and plainly as children twice as old among us. This was especially remarkable in the Oral schools, where handwriting does not have so important a place as in the Manual schools.

9. *The Ohio Institution*, Columbus, Ohio.

This large school, containing 470 pupils, has at its head a superintendent who looks after business matters, and a principal who conducts the educational department. When the new school building, which is to be ready in October, is finished, it will be one of the finest in America. The method is the old one—signs for all, finger-spelling for all; besides, those children who show adaptability therefor are instructed in speech.

The principal of the school, Mr. Robert Patterson, is

a highly educated deaf man. The teachers impressed me as being capable and zealous, and there was a particularly methodical course of study, in that complete and detailed rules were prescribed for each class as to the range and character of the work to be done, and weekly reports were made of each pupil.

The school at Columbus has suffered from the same unfortunate state of affairs as some of the other large State schools in America, namely, that the political party which wins has the right to dismiss not only the superintendent, but any of the teachers it pleases. A few years ago a clean sweep was made in Indianapolis, Indiana, and Jacksonville, Illinois. Mr. Jones, Superintendent in Columbus, had been at the helm only a few years when I visited the school. I have since learned that as a result of the last election he has been reappointed, to the delight of the teachers.

A strong public opinion has been aroused against this system of politics; it has been abandoned in respect to many schools, and it is to be hoped that in time it will die out.

10. *The Pennsylvania Institution*, Mount Airy, Philadelphia.

This large school, conducted by Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, is the original school of the State of Pennsylvania. It was formerly located in the centre of the city of Philadelphia, but a few years ago it was moved into large new buildings in high and spacious grounds north of the city, an hour's journey by street car, and half an hour by steam car, from the centre of the city.

Of all the schools I have seen in America and England, this is the grandest as to buildings and grounds.

The school has passed through a remarkable evolution.

When I visited the school there were 500 pupils,—the school can accommodate still more,—and of these only fifty were in the Manual Department. It is not many

years since this Institution was a Manual school, with a little oral instruction for those pupils who were found especially adapted therefor. The present superintendent has undertaken a number of reforms, one of which was the abolition of the sign-language. Then he began to divide the pupils so that those who were found adapted for oral instruction were placed in a department by themselves. Year by year the number assigned to the Oral Department became larger and larger, and when I was there assignment to the Manual Department had almost ceased, as only the mentally backward were placed in this department. Miss McDowell, who had charge of the Preparatory Department, thought that only about five per cent. needed to be thus separated. She expressed the opinion that as a rule those who could learn language could learn to speak. They were already looking for the time when no other method than the Oral would be used at Mount Airy. In case any of the pupils admitted, who were not considered suitable for oral instruction, should nevertheless remain at school, it was thought best to establish a separate school for them at some other place. No definite plan as to this had as yet been decided upon, however.

The relation of the Manual and the Oral method in the Pennsylvania School may be seen from the following table, showing the number of pupils instructed by each method from year to year :

	1888	1890	1892	1894	1896	1897	1898
Manual method.....	333	332	274	176	121	93	60
Oral method.....	100	100	170	304	390	416	446
	433	432	444	480	511	509	506

The grading according to ability is so arranged that the more capable pupils receive a higher education than the less capable.

The instruction in arithmetic, which was simple, and imparted by the teacher, was peculiar. He followed the principle that the pupil should first find the solution of the problems on his own account before the usual forms were taught. Examples in multiplication and division were given the pupils for solution without explanation of the usual methods of doing it. Not until the pupils had acquired practice in solving the problems in their own way, were they shown the conventional way of doing it. The teacher was of the opinion that in this way the pupils learned better to understand what was required, and gained greater self-dependence and assurance in arithmetic. I must add, however, that others of the teachers were not of the same opinion, and I mention this chiefly as an illustration to show how, in America, efforts are made in all directions to render the pupils independent and teach them to think for themselves.

The printing office is equipped with modern facilities. Among other things, there is a Mergenthaler linotype machine.

From what I have been told, I learn that the large school at Jacksonville, Illinois, has lately entered upon a course of evolution similar to that which the Pennsylvania school has just passed through.

11. *The Home School for Deaf Children at Bala, a suburb of Philadelphia.*

This school, which is located amid countrylike surroundings, and conducted by Miss Emma Garrett, contained fifty pupils, most of them quite small, from three years of age and upward. The oldest were eleven to thirteen years old. It was interesting to follow the language exercises with the little ones, which for the smallest took the form of play. The "word and sentence" method is used in its purity. The pupils do not learn to write for some time after entering school, often not until three years have passed. During this long time all exercises are conducted

exclusively by word of mouth. As to the wisdom of this course, I cannot very well have an opinion. I heard strong criticism from persons who, on important questions, are of the same opinion as Miss Garrett. As regards the effectiveness of the instruction and the results achieved, I received the impression, through conversation with the pupils and various tests, that they were by no means insignificant. The highest class, children of eleven to thirteen years, showed considerable proficiency in speech and knowledge, and, in addition, wrote a very neat hand.

Miss Garrett is far more sanguine than Miss McCowen in Chicago as to the possibility of transferring deaf children to the public schools for the hearing, after six or eight years of preparation. She thinks that all who can acquire the language are capable of being thus transferred.

I will here quote a little from a report about this school made by the principal at the Home Congress in Boston in 1896, and which may be considered authoritative, as far as this communication is concerned, in regard to all the schools which are conducted on mainly the same plan, namely, besides the school at Bala, the various day-schools founded on the Oral method (*e. g.*, those in Chicago), the Horace Mann School in Boston, the Wright-Humason School in New York, etc.*

The object of the Home is to give young deaf children the same conditions and opportunities for learning speech and language through the eye that we had at the natural age for learning through the ear, it having been proved that when this is done the deaf child learns like the hearing one. To this end, the little ones are continually surrounded by influences guiding them to articulate speech and speech-reading. An idea is never conveyed to their brains through any motion or sign; it is thought better for them to go temporarily without understanding, until they are able to understand through repeated speech in connection with objects and evident ideas, so that they may form and perfect the habit

* Commenting on this part of Mr. Havstad's report, Miss Garrett says, in a letter to the editor of the *Annals*: "Ours is not a school, but a *home* which the children are expected to leave as soon as they have

of talking, and of speech-reading, which will be everything to them during their later lives.

They eat at the table with grown people, and are constantly attended in their walks, plays, baths, and sleeping rooms by educated house-mothers, whose office is to talk with them, just as to hearing children, and intelligently guide them to the use and understanding of speech. The dining-tables are so arranged that each child sits at a table with grown people, whose business it is to keep the conversation on the plane of the child, and yet to guide it onward ; so that the babies are addressed in simple sentences and only expected to use words ; the children who are learning the first sentences are guided to use them ; and the older children are engaged in conversation through which they are constantly learning new words, combinations, and facts.

12. *Gallaudet College, Washington.*

I do not think it necessary for me to dwell at length upon this well-known college for the deaf, at whose Presentation Day exercises I was present. It is planned for a four years' course for talented deaf persons, who have previously mastered the subjects taught in the High Class of the ordinary schools for the deaf. A few years ago the College was opened also to young women, who have taken advantage of this opportunity to such an extent that there are now nearly as many young women as men attending the — acquired sufficient knowledge of articulate speech, speech-reading, and language, to be separated from all other deaf children and *educated* with hearing children. I enclose you some copies of letters from the teachers of some of our pupils who have finished their course here, which will show you not only what I mean, but that the children can do it perfectly well when they have *finished* a course here."

Miss Garrett encloses letters concerning three former pupils of the Home, showing that they are now pursuing their studies successfully in common schools.

In Mr. Havstad's remarks concerning Gallaudet College, especially with respect to the former and present use of signs, we notice some inaccuracies, and probably no persons connected with any of the schools he visited would be perfectly satisfied with his report of their work. We do not deem it necessary, however, to attempt to correct these unintentional errors, as the readers of the *Annals* are generally acquainted with the facts and will not be misled. Considering that Mr. Havstad is a foreigner and that his visit to America was short, we think the impressions he received concerning our schools were for the most part pretty correct. Of his sincere desire to be fair and just to all there can be no question.—ED. ANNALS.

College. It can be best compared to our *gymnasier*, and the final examination to our *examen ar'ium*. Among the subjects for examinations are several branches of natural science, mathematics, French, German, Latin, Greek, and mental philosophy. The College was founded as early as 1864 by the distinguished gentleman who is still at its head. For many years the usual Manual method was used in the instruction. But, in consequence of the change of methods that has taken place in the schools generally, signs are no longer used in the classrooms and chapel, but only manual spelling, with the difference, however, that those who have previously learned to speak recite orally, except when, out of consideration for those who do not speak, they use the manual alphabet. All are free to use signs outside of the classroom.

This College stands as a living illustration, showing that talented deaf persons can be carried to a high plane of education and development.

Of the most talented pupils of the Oral schools, however, the greater number do not go to the College for their further education. Some take private instruction; others, although as yet, of course, comparatively few, take the preliminary examination for the universities.

In many places in America I found former students of Gallaudet College in various walks of life. Most of them were teachers in schools for the deaf, but others also in positions which require a familiarity with affairs which ordinarily would not seem to be within reach of the deaf. Several are employed by the general and State governments. Mr. Geo. T. Dougherty is city chemist in Chicago. Several are ministers—of course to the deaf—and not a few are engaged in independent mercantile or industrial pursuits.

The number of students of both sexes at Gallaudet College is about one hundred.

The College is, by act of Congress, entitled to confer

the degrees of bachelor, master, and doctor, and is supported by the General Government. The President of the United States is its patron, *ex-officio*, and signs its most important documents, including the diplomas for the above-mentioned degrees.

I could not sufficiently admire the superior ability with which the work of the College is conducted by Dr. E. M. Gallaudet. By establishing this College for the higher education of the deaf he has raised the standard of education in the schools throughout the country and caused them to carry their courses of instruction to a higher plane than they would otherwise have done.

13. *The Columbia Institution, Washington.*

This school for the deaf of the District of Columbia is closely connected with Gallaudet College, and may be regarded as the parent school of the College. The instruction is by the Combined System in this form, that finger-spelling and writing are the basis of instruction, with freedom to use signs. Those considered capable of profiting by instruction in speech receive such instruction. There are about fifty pupils in this school. It is located close to the College, on the same grounds—Kendall Green.

14. *The Horace Mann School, 178 Newbury street, Boston, Massachusetts.*

This school for the deaf children of the city of Boston contains about one hundred pupils, and is conducted by Miss Sarah Fuller. About the same method of instruction is used as in the Wright-Humason School and Miss McCowen's schools. Drill on the elementary sounds, as well as instruction in writing, is begun at a much earlier stage than at the school at Bala, near Philadelphia. Pupils are received as early as three years of age and the principal thought that the younger they were the better for speech instruction. The regular course at the school is ten years, but can be extended to twelve years. The city of Boston pays car-fare for the children and their

attendants when residing a considerable distance from the school. Instruction is given in cooking. It is to be noted that the city of Boston has given the school a building in the best part of the city. A corresponding situation in Christiania would be a place on the Drammensvejen. For that matter, almost all the American schools for the deaf I have seen, those in small as well as large cities, are situated in the best neighborhood of their respective places.

LARS A. HAVSTAD,
Christiania, Norway.

[TO BE CONCLUDED.]

DEAF CHILDREN AND HEARING CHILDREN.

A REASONABLE and courteous criticism upon my "Comparison of Deaf and Hearing Children in their Ninth Year,"* appeared in the *Mt. Airy World* for January 25, 1900.

As the review was published before the complete Thesis issued from the press,† it is probable that a criticism written to-day would differ in some particulars from that of the above date;—and I should not take up any point in the *World's* editorial for rejoinder, were I not convinced that in making extracts from my Thesis for the *Annals* I sacrificed completeness of connection to brevity, and failed, in some instances, to make my meaning clear.

First, as regards the number of children examined, I have no apology to make. I am aware that no absolute data can be obtained without inquiries of far wider scope

* Published in the *Annals* for November, 1899, and January, 1900.

† The complete Thesis, "The Ninth Year of a Deaf Child's Life, A Thesis Accepted by the Faculty of the University of Minnesota for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy," has been published at Faribault, Minnesota, 1900. It makes a book of 107 octavo pages, and gives fuller details than the extracts published in the *Annals*.—ED. ANNALS.

than those within the reach of any one teacher. I examined all the deaf children within *my* sphere, and state results for exactly what they are worth—no more.

At the same time, I cannot regard experiments applied as most of these have been, through five successive years, to deaf children of the same age and school grade, and substantially of the same nationality and social condition, as quite valueless.

I quote from a note upon page 14 of the Thesis in question :

I have purposely delayed putting my manuscript into print in order to compare the class entering in September, 1898, with that which entered in September, 1899; and, in all essential particulars, I have subjected the latter to the tests I employed with the former. It will be seen that results with both classes are very closely alike,—a fact which substantiates my assumption that in limiting attention to the *average* members of a *first-year* class of *eight-year-old* children, *totally deaf* from *infancy*, admitted under the *same conditions* to the *same school*, a very homogeneous group is obtained, yielding more general data in its study, I should suppose, than the examination of several hundred children taken indifferently from all school grades, social classes and natural conditions. The very fact of *deafness* renders the group homogeneous, beyond its proportion of one point out of eight or ten, because the sense of hearing introduces heterogeneity into the experience of a normal child.

At any rate, my experiments are stated with such openness that any one interested to prop or undermine the results can easily make the same tests elsewhere. That different localities, with different populations, should yield different products, would be not at all surprising.

Now a word as to the conclusions which logically follow from the experiments. It is certainly a misconception that I claim to have established, or even would accept, the superiority of the deaf to the hearing. I can see no conceivable connection of sequence between deafness and robustness, nor between deafness and intellectuality. But the life of the deaf child is necessarily different from the life of the hearing, and, whether the fact is apparent or not, my Thesis aims to be a study of environment in

its effect upon individual development. In many respects the difference of circumstances is an unmitigated loss to the deaf. The concepts—social, civil, historical, moral, religious, poetical, humorous, sentimental, fantastical, and numerical—which a bright child picks up through auditory impressions before he has learned to find them in books are largely absent from a deaf child's mind.

A certain Professor of Psychology has urged me to make autopsies of deaf children, and will hardly accept as adequate excuse my assertion that our schools for the deaf do not furnish material for autopsies. The natural assumption is that, through their simpler experience, a deaf child's brain would show fewer convolutions than the hearing child's.

The very fact that so few points can be found for exact comparison between the two classes is ample admission that the deaf child has the narrower development. Tests of the normal child's mentality could be indefinitely multiplied. All these things I concede, and then stand fast on the two claims which I consider as well founded both in fact and theory: First, in the two or three mental endowments capable of exact comparison the deaf were ahead, at least in my experiments; second, that these faculties—of observation, memory, and concentration—are the most fundamental and essential of all the intellectual faculties. I did not start with this assumption; I simply took my tests with no preconceived opinion; the results worked themselves out, and have surprised none more than myself.

Into an explanation of these results it is difficult to enter without personal bias. It is very conceivable that the superior concentration of deaf children—forced upon them by their physical limitation—may be the cause of all other noted differences. Personally, however, I do not believe this, for, as queried by the *World*, "Why, then, should not this beneficent influence persist through life?"

My own opinion I wish to state, in rebuttal of the charge that I would prove deafness to have "*accelerated* rather than retarded both physical and mental growth." I utterly repudiate the "acceleration" theory.

I believe it to be just because the normal child's development has been *accelerated* that we find him flighty, inattentive, forgetful, and *blasé* in regard to intellectual interest; and just because the mental development of the deaf child has not been accelerated—that is, artificially stimulated—that we find him attentive, observant, and *mindful*.

The ideal socialization of a child would, no doubt, be far more wholesome than solitude; but neither in theory nor practice has the ideal training yet been found. All admit that the quietest, most uneventful, least exciting existence possible is the best for a baby under three years of age. I maintain that it is best for a child up to eight, if not longer. But I do not maintain that it is best indefinitely and forever. The brain of a babe is actually of different texture from the adult brain. Excitation of nervous centres, which is wholesome exercise for the adult, has produced brain fever and convulsions in the infant. The best educational system is that which allows the longest possible time for unhastened individual development upon the lines of animal growth, only introducing actual mental discipline before the thought fibre has toughened to inelasticity. There is nothing heterodox in this point of view; it is a tacitly accepted pedagogic principle. The only revolutionary element in my theory regards the age at which the extreme excitability of the infant mind, rendering formal scholastic training deleterious, passes into the inflexibility which defies education. The kindergartners place this point at a very early age—three or thereabout.

In view of even my own experiments, few and slight as I know them to be, I maintain that this point is not

reached before the age of eight or ten ; I am quite sure that it is passed before the age of twelve. It is very possible that it is reached later in the superior than in the inferior races. But I have found at least sixty eight-year-old deaf children with minds still pliant, receptive, teachable, beyond the fashion of the hearing child.

I am fully aware that the kindergartens and primary schools actually accomplish good in removing children from homes of nagging, ill-temper, vulgarity, and deceit, for even four hours a day, but I am not in the least sure that the calm of nature might not be a far more wholesome nursery than the least exacting school, as I am sure the ideal home is better. We have no wrong social influences of home to combat with the deaf child, newly entering school. He has missed the good of general society ; he has also missed the evil. He has never been taught ; he has never been mistaught. He has been neglected, not crammed. He may have been knocked down ; he has never been nagged. He has missed the edifying conversation of his elders, but he has never heard falsehood or scandal. He has never been bored ; he has never been told anything he didn't want to know. Like the child Samuel, he has grown up alone with God.

ALICE J. MOTT,
Instructor in the Minnesota School, Faribault, Minnesota.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE SCHOOLS AND INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES.

THE end of the century seems a fitting time to review some phases of the education of the deaf in this country and to take note of various facts and tendencies in our profession which a study of the conditions of the last fifty years reveals.

In 1858 the first Tabular Statement of the Schools for the Deaf in the United States was published in the *Annals*. First we will look at the proportion of deaf teachers in the profession then and since :

TABLE I.

Year.	Teachers.	Deaf.	Percentage of Deaf Teachers.
1858.....	115	47	40
1870.....	187	77	41
1880.. ..	388	113	29
1890.....	615	160	26
1900.....	1309*	243	18

A gradual falling off in the proportionate number of deaf teachers from the year 1870 to the year 1900 is observed, about two teachers out of five being deaf in 1870, while in 1900 one teacher out of five is deaf. From 1870 to 1880 deaf teachers joined the profession at the rate of about four a year, from 1880 to 1890 about five a year, and from 1890 to 1900 about eight a year. The advance in oralism is doubtless responsible in large measure for the decrease in the proportionate number of deaf teachers.

* The large increase in the total number of teachers during the last decade is partly owing to the fact that in the Tabular Statement of 1900 the teachers of industries are included, while in the previous Tabular Statements cited they were not.

The *Annals* for January, 1900, gives 112 schools for the deaf in the United States. Of this number, six, viz., the South Dakota, St. Louis, Cincinnati Public, Black River Falls, Western Oklahoma, and New Mexico Schools, have deaf principals. The Ohio School has a deaf principal, but he is not the executive head of the Institution. This is also true of the Kendall School at Washington.

The Black River Falls Day-School deserves special mention. It was opened in 1897. It is an Oral school in Wisconsin and reports six pupils. A deaf woman is its principal and teaching force. It is the only instance of its kind in this country. All of the other schools with deaf principals report the Combined System or Manual method of instruction.

The next table has to do with the graduates of Gallaudet College who have engaged in teaching the deaf, in the literary departments of the schools :

TABLE II.

Decade.	Graduates.	Teachers.	Percent- age of Teachers.
1869 '79.....	38	25	65
1879 '89.....	46	28	60
1889-'99.....	86	36	41
Total.....	170	89	52
The first five classes.....	20	15	75
The last five classes....	50	16	32

Here we note that three out of four of the graduates in the first five classes became teachers, while in the last five classes less than one out of three graduates has entered that profession. The difference is quite marked. In the last ten years nearly twenty per cent. fewer of the graduates went to teaching than in the previous decade. Probably the introduction of the normal course at Gal-

11074

laudet College in 1892 made some difference, and the ever increasing number of occupations which the deaf college graduate is able to follow successfully is another reason for the reduction in the proportionate number of those who take up the profession of teaching. A large number of the graduates of Gallaudet have found employment in the various schools for the deaf in other capacities besides that of teaching in the literary departments of the schools. For example, of the graduates from 1895 to 1899, inclusive, we find that at least four have become supervisors, three instructors in physical culture, one a librarian, and one an instructor in sloyd, in schools for the deaf. These are in addition to those who have been engaged as teachers in the literary departments.

Twenty women have graduated from Gallaudet since 1892 and ten of these have become teachers. Of the total number of deaf instructors in the work (243), about one-third are graduates or ex-students of Gallaudet College.

Probably a larger proportion of deaf men than of hearing men in the profession are college graduates. But in connection with this statement we must bear in mind the difference between Gallaudet College and the ordinary college for the hearing. In order successfully to cope with the hearing man with an ordinary high school education, the deaf man, who intends to be a teacher, finds it necessary to be a graduate of Gallaudet College.

Six of the Oral schools have a total of thirteen deaf instructors. Some of these, however, are teachers of industries.

The schools which employ an unusually large proportion of deaf teachers are the following:

TABLE III.

Name.	Teachers.	Deaf.	Percentage of Deaf Teachers.
West Virginia.....	15	13	86
Kendall	10	5	50
South Dakota.....	6	3	50
St. Louis Day.....	4	2	50
South Carolina.....	13	6	46
Louisiana.....	11	5	45
Arkansas.....	28	12	42
Central New York.....	17	7	41

These figures are taken from the Tabular Statement of Schools in the *Annals* for January, 1900. The schools having over 40 per cent. of the staff deaf teachers are named. Bearing in mind that the proportion of deaf to hearing teachers in all the schools in January, 1900, is 18 per cent., these figures do certainly show an uncommonly large percentage of deaf teachers in the schools mentioned.

Another interesting study is the growth in the number of women teachers in the profession in the last fifty years. The following table contains food for reflection:

TABLE IV.

Year.	Male Teachers.	Percentage of Male Teachers.	Female Teachers.	Percentage of Female Teachers.
1851 ..	63	96	3	4
1858 ..	101	88	14	12
1870 ..	125	67	62	33
1880 ..	186	47	202	53
1890 ..	245	40	370	60
1900 ..	458	35	852	65

As shown above, the period of fifty years from 1850-1900 has seen great changes in the relative disproportion of men and women engaged in the work of teaching the

deaf. From the founding of the Hartford School in 1817 up to 1850, a period of thirty-three years, the work of instructing the deaf was practically in the hands of men. It is a well-known fact that in the first half of this century the male teachers in the common schools greatly outnumbered the female teachers. But, in addition to this, a reason for the great preponderance of men in the profession of teaching the deaf up to 1850, and perhaps later, is found in the average age of the pupils admitted to the institutions when they were first opened. For instance, the average age of the first one hundred pupils admitted to the Hartford School was about eighteen years. In this School the earliest age at which pupils could be admitted was ten years, until 1843, when the age limit was placed at eight years. In 1863 the law in New York allowed the admission of pupils at six years of age. As soon as younger pupils were admitted it was discovered that women could teach them more acceptably than men, and incidentally it became known that they could be engaged at a lower salary than men. The greater flexibility of women's features made them more desirable in a way as teachers of speech than men, which is one reason for the rise and growth of the female articulation teacher.

From 1858 to 1870 the comparative number of female teachers increased 21 per cent., and from 1870 to 1880 was another period of phenomenal growth in the proportion of women teachers. From 4 per cent. of the whole number in 1851, we find in 1890 the women teachers not only outnumber the men, but are 60 per cent., or three-fifths, of the whole profession. In this connection it is interesting to know the percentage of women teachers in 1890 in the common schools of the United States. These are the figures. In 1890 we find in all the schools in the United States the following number of teachers :

TABLE V.

Male Teachers.	Percentage of Male Teachers.	Female Teachers.	Percentage of Female Teachers.
152,020	36	271,658	64

Comparing these figures with those for the teachers of the deaf in 1890, a difference of but 4 per cent. is noted ; 4 per cent. more men were engaged in teaching the deaf in 1890 than were engaged in teaching the hearing, compared with the total number of teachers.

Ninety-one of the 113 schools for the deaf in the United States employ more women than men as instructors (including teachers of industries).

In 1858 there were no women principals in the profession. In 1900 there are fifty-four women principals and fifty-nine men principals.

Of the forty-five Oral schools, forty employ women principals. Of the sixty-eight remaining schools, fourteen employ women principals. Forty-three of the 113 schools employ no male teachers. Forty Oral schools out of forty-five employ no male teachers. Thirty-two of the forty-one Day-Schools employ no men instructors. Four of the fifty-seven Public Schools for the Deaf (not including Day-Schools) employ no male instructors. Seven of the fifteen Denominational and Private Schools employ no men teachers.

The American School at Hartford is the only institution in New England which employs male teachers in the literary department.

No schools in which women are principals have men teachers in the literary department.

Eighty per cent. of the teachers in attendance at the Northampton Convention in June, 1899, were women.

At the Flint Convention in 1895, 55 per cent. of the teachers present were women.

At Columbus in 1898 the women teachers formed 50 per cent. of the attendance and 45 per cent. of the membership of the Convention.

The first Tabular Statement of the schools printed in the *Annals* in 1858 shows twenty institutions. Of the principals and superintendents of these schools at that time, all but two, Dr. Gallaudet and Dr. Gillett, have passed away. To Dr. Edward M. Gallaudet, President of Gallaudet College, belongs the distinction of the longest continuous service at the head of an institution in this country. Dr. Gallaudet has been at the head of the Columbia Institution since 1857, and next July will round out forty-three years of service in that capacity. The principal who comes next to Dr. Gallaudet in point of length of service is Sister Mary Ann Burke, Principal of the Le Couteulx St. Mary's Institution in Buffalo, New York, who will complete forty years of service in 1901. She was the first woman to become principal of a school for the deaf in the United States. Next in point of time comes Dr. Warring Wilkinson, Principal of the California School, who has been at the head of that school since 1865. Mr. W. O. Connor has been principal of the Georgia School since 1867. Miss Sarah Fuller has been principal of the Horace Mann School since November, 1869. Mr. James Denison has been principal of the Kendall School since 1870. Mr. Charles W. Ely has been principal of the Maryland School since 1870.

The large number of clergymen who went into the profession of teaching the deaf in the early days is worthy of mention. No fewer than fifteen have taught for various periods in the New York Institution, some of whom were in the ministry before they taught the deaf. Most of them terminated their connection with the Institution to preach. Teaching the deaf was considered more or less in the light of missionary work during the first fifty years of the education of the deaf in this country, and this would account,

in some degree, for the large number of ministers scattered throughout the schools.

In 1893 there were published the names of 833 persons in America who were at that time connected with the work of instructing the deaf; 138, or 16 per cent., of these were college graduates. Seven of these college graduates were women. It would be very difficult to find the proportion of college graduates among the teachers of the deaf at different periods, but data are at hand in regard to the principals of the schools. The following table shows the proportion of college graduates among the principals, beginning with the year 1869 and ending in 1900:

TABLE VI.

Year.	Men Principals.	College Graduates.	Percentage of College Graduates.
1869.....	23	19	82
1870.....	26	21	80
1880.....	43	26	60
1890.....	48	26	54
1900.....	59	30	50

Quite a steady decline is noted from 1869, until now about one-half of the men principals are college graduates. Of the fifty-four women principals, one, or 2 per cent., is a college graduate. She has charge of the Neilsville (Wisconsin) Day-School with seven pupils.

There are six principals who have not graduated from any college, but who have received degrees in honor of their attainments. Of the eleven largest schools in the United States, a majority of the principals or superintendents are not college-bred men.

The roll of graduates of Yale University who have entered the profession of teaching the deaf is long and illustrious. Twenty-nine graduates of Yale alone, including such men as Gallaudet, Peet, Rae, and Porter, have

taught at the Hartford School, besides graduates of other colleges. The New York Institution at Washington Heights has enrolled sixty-three college graduates in its corps of instructors, twenty-one, or one-third, of whom were Yale men. Five-eighths of all the male teachers employed at the New York Institution from 1818 to the present time have been college men. In recent years there has been a falling off in the number of Yale graduates who have entered the profession of teaching the deaf. Since 1886 there have been only four within the writer's knowledge. On the other hand, some have recently come from Harvard, and there are now a great many representatives of the smaller colleges in the profession. It is probably true that the proportion of college men in the work in 1900 is not nearly as large as it was fifty years ago.

EDWARD P. CLARKE,
*Instructor in the New York Institution,
Washington Heights, New York.*

THE QUESTION OF SALARY.

CONCERNING the question of salary, every one reserves the privilege of private opinion.

If the teachers stand on a dead level, if all receive the same remuneration for their unselfish devotion, some will insist upon a substantial recognition of their superior excellence. If, as is frequently the case, a few receive more than the average, the less fortunate will demand the basis upon which the classification of genius is made. Should promotion depend upon length of service, a great injustice is done to those brilliant young teachers who, after a brief apprenticeship, are able to accomplish more than others of long experience. Thus saith the young man. But the old teacher, who has travelled the long road, does not re-

joice to see the agile tyro cut across fields, and join him at the top. In some institutions for the deaf, men receive higher salaries than women. In such localities the doctrine that "whatever is, is right" has more adherents among men than among the gentler sex.

There is an element of selfishness in my composition. This demands pecuniary recognition of superior service when such service is rendered by me. But I do not insist upon this system of reward, if I am no better than the average. In other words, if I am an excellent workman, I ask for piece work; if not, I am satisfied to labor by the day.

It will always happen that "one shall be taken, and the other left." There will ever be favorites and favoritism. The advancement of some will be due to friendship or obligation rather than to extraordinary ability. If I am the one favored, I say: "Here are ten of us equally qualified for a higher position; only one can be promoted; I should have the preference, because my employer is an old friend, and is under obligations to me." The nine who are not chosen will take a different view. They will insist that, owing to the glamour of friendship, my numerous defects are overlooked; that there is little incentive to the conscientious worker when personal feeling stands for more than devotion to duty. Frequently "the race is not to the swift, nor the battle to the strong . . . time and chance happen to them all." Thousands are struggling for a few coveted positions. When the race has ended, they will find there is not always a wise Dodo to award a first prize to every contestant.

In several lines of work, men and women are in active competition. Men are ungallant enough to say women have no right to crowd them out; they have families to support; and it is impossible for them to live on what a woman will accept as remuneration for her labor. From the woman's point of view, she should receive the same

pay as the man doing work of the same nature. The amount done should be the measure of compensation. If she does less work, she should receive less pay; if more work, more pay. This proposition is so clear that any one, except a man, would accept it as axiomatic. But man has failed to accept it; hence we must conclude that man is less logical than woman; that he is unjust; or that there is a flaw in fair woman's ratiocination.

There was a time, not so very long ago, when certain fields of labor were recognized as belonging to men, and others of less dimensions were reserved for women. Seldom did woman trespass upon man's domain. Woman's lot was so small that man rarely cast envious glances upon it. A romantic courtship and a successful marriage were supposed to keep a woman busy for a while. Later, her domestic duties and the care of children occupied the greater part of her time; and her superfluous energy was expended upon society, quilts of weird fantastic design, and the management of a husband. The spinster and the widow could pay taxes, and live on the interest of their money,—when they had any. The less fortunate paid taxes, and had their choice between sewing and taking in washing. Later, the wise men of the “deestricht” decided that woman could teach—in summer. So the summer school was given to a woman. By a system of economy, now known as the “sweating process,” her salary was fixed so low that the trustees were enabled to keep a male teacher warm in winter.

In the good old days, woman was not a victim of over-education. Her curriculum was remarkable for what it did not embrace. It was not always found necessary for her to be subjected to the contaminating influence of vulgar fractions in order to become a charming companion, a model housekeeper, or a prolific mother. Even when parents had the desire and opportunity to give their daughters a *superior* education, tradition decided that it

should be largely of the kind which would do them the least good.

In education to-day, brains count for more than sex. Education has brought new pleasures to woman, and created new desires. These must be gratified; but she must pay for what she gets. In order to satisfy her wants, woman has ignored all signs of "No trespass allowed," and taken work wherever she could find it.

The business mind is conservative. There must be a reason for a change; precedent is not to be violated without sufficient cause. There was nothing except theory upon which woman could base her superiority,—and the business man is no theorist. Woman was employed because she was cheaper. I do not believe woman will do more work than man, but she will often do as much work for less money. In certain employments, women have practically supplanted men for this reason, and for no other. A few men survive, and these generally receive higher wages than the women. This is because the market price for women is less than the price for men. So far, most attempts toward equalization have reduced the incomes of men without increasing those of women. It would not benefit all women to have the salaries equal; for then more men would be engaged and fewer women could find employment.

Women to-day are so terribly in earnest that occasionally one is guilty of underbidding another person and taking his position at figures ridiculously out of proportion to the duties to be performed. For instance, I know of a bookkeeper who received one hundred and twenty-five dollars a month. A woman agreed to do his work for forty dollars. She drove the man out of employment, and helped to set the market price for other women at a figure far lower than it should be. Hers was not an act of necessity. Time hung heavy on her hands; she wanted something to do. Another—may her tribe not increase—told

me of an unsuccessful effort to have her salary augmented. "I didn't get the raise I expected," she said, "but I am satisfied. I had a hundred dollars taken off Miss ——'s salary."

If, in this article, I refer to the inferiority of women, I mean only in their present average earning capacity. I wish to enter into no discussion of the relative abilities of men and women, because I have friends of both sexes. I assume that neither is superior to the other.

Earnest, energetic, intelligent women apply for positions as teachers of the deaf at certain salaries. A few men are deemed necessary to the best interests of the deaf. Generally, the men who make application expect larger salaries than the women. Men equal to these women usually command a higher price. There are very few trustees, if any, who would not rejoice to see their teachers better paid. But they cannot give much more than the State pays to teachers in other schools where as high a grade of ability is demanded.

The first duty of the trustees is to the State. The State is the whole people, and the whole is greater than any of its parts. The second duty is to the pupils for whom the institution was founded. Teachers are necessary to a school, but they should receive fair treatment. Trustees should pay enough to attract competent teachers, and offer reasonable inducements for their retention. They should never stoop to injustice in order to make a good *per capita* financial exhibit.

While wrong may exist, I am convinced that the fault does not lie with the trustees. The subject of salary is one they have constantly before them. They study it from more than one point of view. The public is responsible for the condition. The highest duty of the trustees is to obey the people, and often at the sacrifice of private opinion. If the public demands a change, the trustees will never stand in the way.

Every person is a part of the public, and it is every person's duty to try to influence public opinion. When a certain class fails to receive justice, we should let the fact be known. We should show our faith by our works, but we should always exercise common sense. Let us say a certain class of workers make four hundred dollars a year. One employer believes they are worth seven hundred a year. He should urge other employers to do justice; but he will surely fail in business if he attempts to pay what he believes is right. He should pay as much as possible, and meet competition, and hope for the rest. However much we may desire to help others, I doubt that any permanent good results from paying very much more than the regular price for labor.

When we understand the conditions, we see clearly that a smaller income is not necessarily the result of inferior intellect or ability. The Governor of New Jersey receives a salary of ten thousand dollars a year, while the Governor of Texas receives only four thousand. No one would infer from these facts that the woods of New Jersey furnish better gubernatorial timber than the forests of Texas.

It is a principle of physics that no two bodies can occupy identical space at the same time. If there is not room for both, one must give way to the other. We talk glibly of the "survival of the fittest." The popular belief is that the strong will always crush out the weak; that in the general shake-up the large potatoes will always come to the top. The large potatoes will come to the top, but through no virtue of their own. Their rise is the result of inability to fit in below; they are actually pushed to the top. If we study history carefully, we shall find the weak things of the world have often confounded the things which are mighty. Gold is more precious than silver, and silver is more valuable than paper; yet the worst money will always drive the best money out of circulation.

Let us take a hasty glance at the history of labor in England. At first the laws were in favor of the employer. Then came freedom of contract. The employer was free to seek labor where and at what price he could find it. The laborer was at liberty to hunt work where he could obtain it, and for the highest wages he could get. It was lawful for each to do as he willed with his own. This appeared to be the ideal condition. It might have been, but for the introduction and extensive use of machinery. Child labor soon followed machinery. The child could do almost as much work as the man, and his expenses were not nearly so great. While the child did nearly as much work as the man, he did not receive anything like as much for his labor. Wages were adjusted on a new basis—the cost of living for a child. It was impossible for a man to compete with his neighbor's son or daughter. Now there is a reaction against freedom of contract, against the evils of child labor. The tendency in England at present is to protect the strong against the encroachments of the weak.

The American workman is more intelligent than the Mongolian; yet he cannot compete with the Chinese. Bret Harte's "Truthful James" was not the only one to record the disastrous effects of Chinese cheap labor. In order to allow the "survival of the fittest," our government has been compelled to legislate against the influx of the unfit.

"The first Almighty Cause acts not by partial, but by general laws." Custom and law attempt to meet general conditions. Frequently, a law works an injury to an individual; yet that law is for the best interests of the masses. A railway locomotive is a good thing; but it makes havoc of the man who gets in its way. The man may not be at fault, nor the engine, but the effect is the same. Is woman as a wage-earner in her normal relation to society? If she is, all rights and privileges now en-

joyed by men should be extended to her. If not, it is only natural that she should be so hampered and restricted as to lessen her temptation to deviate from the proper course. Those who violate the law through necessity must suffer with those who act from choice.

By many it is boldly asserted and plausibly maintained that the family is the unit of progress and civilization; that the integrity of the State and the purity of society are threatened by a tendency toward the disintegration of the family unit. The world for these thousands of years has deemed woman better qualified than man for domestic duties and the rearing of children. These duties occupy the major part of woman's time and attention. While expressing the highest regard for the individuals who must enter the army of wage-earners, they dare not offer great inducements to those who enlist from choice.

This position is not wholly wrong; but if I thought it were wholly right, I fear I should lack the courage of my convictions. Some of my dearest relatives and friends are compelled to do men's work for women's pay.

These may be violating the law, and they may have to pay the penalty; but if their fate were at my disposal, they could safely rely upon executive clemency.

HARRIS TAYLOR.

*Instructor in the Pennsylvania Institution,
Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.*

THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF 1900.

GALLAUDET COLLEGE, KENDALL GREEN,
WASHINGTON, D. C., *March 13, 1900.*

TO THE HEADS OF SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN AMERICA, AND
INSTRUCTORS IN THE SAME.

Dear Colleagues: I have been requested by Dr. Ladreit De Lacharrière, President of the Committee of Organization for the International Congress for the Study of Questions of Education and Assistance of the Deaf, called to meet in Paris on the sixth of August next, to be the representative of the Committee in America.

Acting in this capacity, I have pleasure in presenting to the members of our profession on this side of the Atlantic the following circular, giving a proposed programme of subjects to be discussed by the Hearing Section of the Congress.

It will be seen that a wide range of topics will be open for consideration, all of interest and many of commanding importance.

For the credit of our quarter of the world, and especially of the United States, where it is claimed that the education of the deaf is more general and advanced than elsewhere, it is to be hoped that a large delegation will attend the Congress, prepared to present papers that shall worthily represent and set forth the work now being done for the deaf in America.

As the expense of attending the Congress will be considerable, and as the means at the disposal of superintendents, principals, and instructors for this purpose are in most cases small, I would respectfully urge the Boards of Direction of our schools to afford, as far as practicable, such pecuniary aid to those desiring to attend the Congress as may enable them to do so.

Readers of the *Annals* are reminded that a circular relating to the Congress was published in the *Annals* for November, 1899 (page 470), from which some further information may be had.

Hoping for a large delegation to the Congress from America, the subject is commended to the favorable consideration of all interested.

In behalf of the Committee of Organization,

EDWARD M. GALLAUDET,

Representative for America.

PARIS, *January 1, 1900.*

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS FOR THE STUDY OF QUESTIONS
CONCERNING THE EDUCATION AND AID OF DEAF-MUTES.
(PARIS, 1900.)

Section of Hearing Persons.

The Committee of Organization of the Congress for Deaf-Mutes (Section of Hearing Persons) has permitted its numerous members a delay of several months for sending in the questions which might appear of special interest. It does not consider a further delay to be advisable, desiring each person to have sufficient time for study and preparation of papers on the questions chosen by the Committee.

This decision has been prompted by the desire to induce members of the Congress who wish properly to prepare their contributions, to embrace therein, besides their personal experience, the documents they will be able to collect in their several countries.

The three questions placed at the head of the programme of the Congress are of universal interest, and are sufficiently comprehensive for each individual to study one phase of it and make known what more particularly concerns his own country; thus the papers brought before the Con-

gress will form a collection the importance of which cannot be overestimated.

First Question.

Organization of the instruction of deaf-mutes in different countries.—Should establishments for the education of deaf-mutes be considered as charitable or as educational institutions?

Second Question.

Results obtained by the Oral method. Indicate, for the unification of methods, what are the most practical processes for the application of the Oral method as it was defined by the Milan Congress.

Third Question.

Aid of deaf-mutes.—Formation of societies for patronage and employment.—Creation of asylums and almshouses.—Encouragement of associations and co-operative societies.

The three questions above given will be placed at the head of the order of the day in the Congress, and will be voted upon, if necessity arises.

The Committee of Organization, being very grateful for the numerous suggestions which have been addressed to it, does not deem it right to ignore entirely the other questions which have been proposed to it. It therefore accepts the following questions :

1. (a) Is there reason to create special schools (trade-schools or others) for particularly gifted deaf-mutes, or simply annex courses in existing schools?

(b) Should there be special courses for backward pupils in institutions for deaf-mutes?

(c) Does the existing organization of schools for deaf-

deaf-mutes (administration, inspection, programmes, and sanction of studies) answer the needs of the period and the real interests of deaf-mutes?

2. How can the Oral method be applied to all deaf-mutes? What should be the place of writing?

3. Industrial training provided in schools for deaf-mutes. Choice of an occupation which they can pursue in their own country and, as far as possible, near their relatives.

4. Deaf-mutes previous to their admission to school.—Kindergartens.

5. Auricular training.—Auricular instruction by the voice alone without the aid of ear-tubes.

6. Means of modulating the voice of the deaf.

7. Text-books for deaf-mutes.

8. What are the best methods of teaching articulation?

9. Should one confine oneself solely to articulation till the moment when all the elements of the language are known; or, should one, as fast as the elements acquired permit, teach the ordinary words containing these elements, and even short sentences, in order to give the deaf-mute, from the earliest period, opportunity to express thoughts which are in constant use?

10. What method should be followed in order to develop simultaneously ideas and language in the best conditions for giving to deaf-mutes the taste and possibility of reading,—to give them, in a word, an acquaintance with language sufficient to permit them to read and to understand works read and understood by hearing people?

11. Concerning the advantage there would be, while waiting for the day-school to supersede the boarding-school, in throwing deaf-mutes and hearing children together during recreation hours in the play-grounds.

12. What advance has been achieved in the institutions, since the last Congresses, towards ameliorating the lot of deaf-mutes? What departures have been instituted since then with this object?

13. Is industrial training given or organized in a sufficiently practical fashion?

14. Concerning the means of securing compulsory education for deaf-mutes.

15. Statistics of deaf-mutes in different countries.

16. Is it desirable that a more intimate collaboration should be established between physicians and teachers than that at present existing in schools for deaf-mutes?

The Committee of Organization is very desirous that its members should treat in their papers of the questions on the programme of the Congress.

Outlines of these papers, not exceeding two printed pages, must be addressed to the Committee before the first of May, 1900, in order that they may be translated into French, and that this translation, printed, may be distributed to each member of the Congress.

If, for lack of time, the papers cannot all be discussed, the authors may rest assured that they will be published in the proceedings of the Congress.

A special room will be devoted to the exhibition of books, apparatus, and also of the pupils that several instructors propose to bring to Paris for exhibition to the members of the Congress.

A circular will in due time make known to the members the arrangements for the Congress and the facilities which will be afforded them for transportation and for their sojourn in Paris.

Those who propose to attend the Congress are earnestly requested to send their names as soon as possible.

Names for membership or communications relative to the Congress should be addressed to the President or the Secretary-General.

Conference of Superintendents and Principals. 249

*Officers of the Committee of Organization of the Congress for Deaf-Mutes,
Section of Hearing Persons:*

VICE-PRESIDENT,
BAGUER,
*Director of the Departmental
Institution of Asnières.*

PRESIDENT,
DR. LADREIT DE LACHARRIÈRE,
Quai Malaquais, 3.

SECRETARY,
DR. LEGAY,
rue Blanche, 54.

SECRETARY-GENERAL,
DR. MARTHA,
rue Fortuny, 32.

TREASURER,
DR. SAINT-HILAIRE,
avenue de l'Opera, 11.

THE CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF 1900.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL AT HARTFORD FOR THE DEAF,
HARTFORD, CONN., *March 20, 1900.*

Accepting the very cordial invitation of the Alabama School for the Deaf, the Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf will assemble at that school on Saturday, June 30th, at 7.30 o'clock P. M.

All Superintendents and Principals of Schools for the Deaf in the United States and Canada are entitled to active membership in the Conference, and members of Boards of Directors and Trustees of such schools are cordially invited to participate in the Conference as honorary members.

Whatever arrangements can be made as to reduced railroad fares will be announced later.

For the Executive Committee,

JOB WILLIAMS,
Chairman.

ENOCK LEWIS FANCHER.

AT a Stated Meeting of the Board of Directors of the New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, held at 54 Exchange Place, New York, on Wednesday, March 14, 1900, the Committee appointed to prepare and report a minute upon the death of our late President, the Hon. E. L. Fancher, read the minute prepared by them.

On motion of Mr. Avery T. Brown, seconded by Mr. John T. Terry, the minute was adopted and ordered spread upon the minutes.

It was further ordered that it be published in the *American Annals of the Deaf* and that a copy thereof be sent to his family.

It is as follows :

Amid the rush and the roar of this pushing and material age it is good to mark here and there a life which, disdaining self-seeking and notoriety, pursues its quiet way, high in purpose, steady in achievement, rich in good deeds, content with the consciousness of duty done. Like a river which, finding its source in distant hills, flows peacefully on, steadily gathering volume day by day, till it comes to bear upon its bosom the commerce of nations, and sweeps onward, deep, strong, placid, beneficent, to mingle at last with the eternal sea,—such a life was that which, full of years and honor, came to its end on the 9th of February last.

From the day when Enoch Lewis Fancher first set his foot, a poor boy unknowing and unknown, in the City of New York, to the hour when he closed his eyes on all earthly things, he so moulded his career that it may well serve as a lesson and an example. Gifted with an intellect exceptionally clear and calm, he so improved and cultivated it that he easily rose to the first rank in his

profession. He was not, however, a showy, brilliant advocate. The bent of his mind ran rather toward lucid argument and logical deduction, so that he was speedily recognized as *facile princeps* at the bar of the higher courts. And in his own chambers his quick perception, sound judgment, and unswerving integrity brought him hosts of clients of the first importance, who leaned on him in implicit faith as a safe adviser and a wise counselor. When the New York Chamber of Commerce secured legislative sanction to the establishment of a Court of Arbitration for the settlement, without litigation, of disputed commercial questions, he was instantly selected by the Governor of the State as the one man pre-eminently fitted to preside over that tribunal, and the selection received the unanimous and immediate approval of the Chamber. No decision rendered by him in that court was ever questioned, while his opinions in the higher sphere of Justice of the Supreme Court still stand as models of clear statement and conclusive reasoning.

But beneath that earnest devotion to his profession which raised him to so high a rank lay, broad and deep, those religious principles upon which not only his practice of the law, but the conduct of his whole life, was founded. From early manhood he had applied his keen logical faculties to the consideration of the most important of all questions, with the result that he became in conviction, as well as in practice, a Christian. It follows naturally from this that he was in the highest sense of the word a gentleman. Uniformly modest and courteous, he was remarkable for a dignity of presence and an equability of temper which even the heat of legal controversy failed to ruffle or disturb. So much so, that he was sometimes thought, by those who had not the privilege to know him well, to be cold and distant. This was a great error. A warmer, kinder heart never beat. Denied by Providence offspring of his own, he was the tenderest and most

loving of fathers to the children of his adoption. But even more valid evidence is found in his consideration for the younger men in his profession. Not content with helping those who asked his help, he was ever watchful of the opportunity to encourage and advance struggling merit. He was charitable beyond the general meaning of the word, for he gave not only of his money, but so largely of his time and legal knowledge to every good work with which he was connected, that his services, in that regard, if estimated at their money value, would be worth a fortune.

The limits of this minute will not permit of a statement in detail of the important offices which he so efficiently held for many years in the multifarious charities of this city and in his own particular branch of the Christian Church. What he was to them and to it we may fittingly judge from his relations to our own Institution. Elected a life member in 1858, a Director in 1860, he was, at the time of his death, the oldest member of the Board in consecutive service. In 1862 he was appointed Counsel to the Board, and in 1886, after serving five years as Vice-President, he became its President. Warmly interested in the cause of deaf-mute education, he made himself familiar with the management of the Institution and knew personally many of its pupils. With all the calls upon his time he was, until hampered by advancing years, constant and punctual at our meetings. As our presiding officer he held dignified but kindly sway over our deliberations. But it was in the administration of his office as Counsel that he rendered us the most signal service. Occupied as he was, he was never so occupied that he could not and did not give immediate attention to any question affecting the legal status of the Institution or its property.

For thirty-eight years his advice was ever at our service ; he took an important part in shaping legislation in our

interest; he prosecuted or defended, as the case might be, all suits in which the Institution was from time to time forced to engage. Many of us remember when this was no sinecure, when days and weeks were necessarily consumed in preparation and attendance, and we remember, too, how cheerfully the time was given, the work done, and the lasting benefit to the Institution which followed. What he did for us he did for many other benevolent societies, until it was cause for wonderment how he was enabled to accommodate this unremunerated labor with the demands of his large and important practice. Undoubtedly this was owing in a large measure to his tranquil habit of mind, and the systematic method which in all business matters was his distinguishing characteristic. However pressed, he was never flurried, and never failed to give to the subject in hand its due meed of care and attention, so that everything he did was thoroughly done.

To the last his mental faculties were clear as crystal, and found exercise, even in his final illness, in advice and assistance to those philanthropic objects which were ever so near his heart. He had the secret, given to so few, of growing gracefully old, so that through his sympathies and kindly interest he kept in touch with the young, and inspired affection as well as reverence. As increasing bodily infirmity gradually withdrew him from the activities of business life, he found employment and solace in the contemplation of that future to which he looked forward with absolute faith and trust. Confined at last to his room, he had no lack of fitting company.

Hath he not always treasures, always friends,
The good, great man? Three treasures, love and light
And calm thoughts regular as infant's breath,
And three firm friends, more sure than day and night,
Himself, his Maker, and the angel Death.

We, his fellow workers in this great charity, grateful

for the privilege of association with him for so many years, lay this humble tribute on his grave.

THATCHER M. ADAMS,
FRANCIS V. GREENE,
EVERETT HERRICK,
Committee.

MARCH 14, 1900.

THATCHER M. ADAMS,
Secretary.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Alabama Institute.—Mrs. Emily A. Johnson, teacher and matron from 1858 to 1892, died February 13, 1900. As the wife and helper of Dr. Joseph H. Johnson, the founder, and long the principal, of the Institute, and the mother of the present principal, she was associated with its history until within a few years and had a large share in its beneficent work. An acquaintance speaks of her as “a sweet, gracious, Christian woman, whose life was full of good works.”

Derby (England) Institution.—A sanatorium is to be erected, apart from the main building. Sir Henry Bemrose has provided the site, and Mr. Walter Evans will bear the cost of the building.

Donaldson's Hospital (Edinburgh, Scotland) School.—Mr. Alfred Large, for many years head master of this School, and the author of the article “Deaf and Dumb” in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, has been succeeded in the office of head master by Mr. John Brown, late a teacher in the School.

Gallaudet College.—The Alumni Association have recently published an illustrated pamphlet of 74 pages, giving the minutes and proceedings of the Association Meetings from 1889 to 1899. It includes some valuable papers relating to the interests of the College and the deaf generally, presented at the Fourth Meeting, and is supplemented by brief but interesting histories of the College and of Athletics in the College, contributed by Professor Amos G. Draper, and a history of the Alumni, by Miss May Martin.

President Gallaudet hands us the following statement concerning the Normal Department :

There are three young men and two young women in the class of 1900 who will complete their preparatory training in June next. They are all graduates of colleges, and will be well equipped to make successful instructors. They have had much actual practice during their stay at Kendall Green and will be prepared to teach orally or manually as may be desired. They can be cordially recommended to heads of schools as desirable teachers in all respects.

Several appointments to the class for next year have already been made, and the quota of young women is full. There are still a few vacancies available for young men, and the President of the College will be pleased to receive nominations of eligible candidates recently graduated from college, or who will graduate this year.

Texas School.—Mr. Owen G. Carrell, a member of the Senior Class at Gallaudet College, has been added to the corps of instruction.

Virginia School.—Miss S. J. LaRue has been appointed a teacher in the primary department for next year, and Mr. S. C. Jones, a teacher who has had two years' leave of absence to attend Gallaudet College, will return to his work.

Western Pennsylvania Institution.—The school was reopened with 75 pupils on the 12th of March. About 25 of these live in the vicinity and go home every evening. For the rest dormitories have been fitted up in the industrial buildings. A new building has been erected for dining-room and kitchen, and temporary schoolrooms are provided in the carpenter shop.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Industrial Training.—The committee of the National Association of the Deaf on Industrial Status, of which Mr. Warren Robinson, of Delavan, Wisconsin, is chairman, has issued a circular to the heads of schools for the deaf in the United States and Canada, calling attention to the resolution adopted by the Association at its meeting in St. Paul last summer, which urged upon all such schools "redoubled efforts looking toward the elevation and advancement of their industrial departments by adopting the term 'instructor' in place of the

usual designation of 'foreman,' by placing in such departments instructors as well qualified for their duties as those of the literary departments and admitting them to membership in the teachers' associations of the schools, and by introducing into the above-mentioned departments the most modern methods and appliances for both manual training and trade teaching."

The committee also suggests that "Industrial Bureaus," established and maintained at the different schools, would be useful in securing opportunities of employment for former pupils, and offers to co-operate with the management of all the schools for the improvement of the industrial condition of the deaf.

The Gallaudet Home.—The main building of the Gallaudet Home for Aged and Infirm Deaf-Mutes near Poughkeepsie, New York, and the wing recently added for the men, were destroyed by fire on the night of February 18, 1900. Through the heroic efforts of the matron and one of the servants the residents of the Home, several of whom are blind as well as deaf, were all rescued without injury. They are temporarily housed in the Poughkeepsie City Home. The Gallaudet Home will be rebuilt without delay. About \$20,000, in addition to the sum received for insurance, will be required, and the trustees of the Church Mission appeal to the public for that amount.

The Examination of Pupils in England.—Dr. Richard Elliott, Head Master of the London and Margate Schools, has submitted to the Committee of the College of Teachers a scheme for the individual examination of English deaf pupils on a uniform scale. Its purpose is to provide, by yearly examinations conducted by the College of Teachers, something analogous to the examinations for hearing youth in England, which, when passed satisfactorily, entitle the successful candidate to a certificate from the College of Preceptors or from the Oxford or Cambridge Local Examination Board. He hopes that its effect may be to raise the general standard of education for the deaf, and to pave the way for their higher educa-

tion. The following subjects, to be added to from time to time at the discretion of the Committee of the College, are proposed as subjects for examination :

(A) *Language* (including composition on a subject):

- (1) An easy abstract subject.
- (2) A short narrative.
- (3) A description.
- (4) Reproduction in the pupil's own words of a passage containing a short narrative read over for a minute or two.
- (5) About six to ten questions on the same passage, to test the pupil's comprehension of its meaning.

(B) *Grammar*.

- (1) Correct use of inflexions.
- (2) Simple, compound, and complex sentences from words set.
- (3) Simple paraphrasing.

(C) *General Knowledge*.

Tested by questions on common substances, and every-day occurrences.

(D) *History of England*.

Questions on a certain period to be announced a sufficient time previously.

(E) *Scriptural Knowledge*.

In general, and knowledge of the common doctrines of Christianity.

(F) *Arithmetic*.

Up to the ordinary Sixth Elementary Standard, and including easy problems, and set questions in Mental Arithmetic.

(G) *Geography*.

- (1) Physical and Political Geography of the British Empire, with further details of the country of the candidate.
- (2) General Geography of the World.

(H) *Articulation*.

A selected passage to be read with not fewer than four words in a breath, all the elementary sounds to be correctly rendered, a total of say three or four imperfections only being allowed.

A passage previously unknown to the examiner, and consisting of not fewer than twenty words, to be read by the candidate to the examiner as a test of intelligibility.

(I) *Lip Reading*.

A passage containing eighty to a hundred words to be given, as set by the examiners. The whole to be read over to the candidate twice slowly and with distinct utterance, and then by portions of four or five words, each portion to be read over twice, and then to be rendered by the candidate on paper. To obtain a pass, at least seventy-five per cent. of the words should be correct.

It is proposed that the candidate shall be allowed to be examined in any or all of the subjects, but in order to obtain a "pass certificate" he must pass in at least four subjects, including Language and General Knowledge.

The International Congress of 1900.—The communication from President Gallaudet in the present number of the *Annals* gives the latest information concerning the Section for Hearing Persons of the International Congress to be held at Paris in the interests of the deaf in August next. The Section for Deaf Persons has also been fully organized. The American Committee, of which the Rev. Austin W. Mann is chairman and Mr. Thomas F. Fox is Secretary, have had several meetings and have arranged an excellent programme in accordance with the wishes of the French Committee.

The National Educational Association.—Charleston, South Carolina, has been selected as the place of the next meeting of the Association, which is to be held July 10–14, 1900. The Executive Committee announces that "generous rates, ticket conditions, diverse routes and stop-over privileges are offered by the railroads." The several Vice-Presidents of Department Sixteen are now making arrangements for the work of their respective sections. As soon as they are ready, the programme will be published. Communications relating to the programme of the section for the deaf should be addressed to Miss Mary McCowen, 6550 Yale Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. Mr. Newton F. Walker, Superintendent of the North Carolina Institution, expects to attend the meeting at Charleston, and will do all in his power to promote the interests of Department Sixteen.

Proceedings of the Convention of Italian Instructors.—The Proceedings of the Convention of Italian Instructors held at Rome last September have been published with commendable promptness (*Atti della Prima Riunione dei Maestri Italiani dei Sordomuti tenuta in Roma dal 31 Agosto al 2 Settembre 1899*. Siena: S. Bernardino, 1900. 8vo, pp. 180). A brief report of the Convention and of the resolutions adopted was

given in the last January *Annals*, page 89. The group of members shown in the frontispiece presents a remarkable contrast to any similar gathering of American teachers in the small number of women present, of whom there are only three, and in the large number of ecclesiastics, who constitute a majority of the men.

“Deaf-Mutisms.”—As “a specimen of deaf-mutisms” several journals publish the following letter, said to have been “written many years ago by a pupil in the New York Institution for the Deaf, who was afterwards widely known as one of the most scholarly deaf-mutes in America.” The letter was written many years ago by a scholarly man, but not by a deaf-mute. Its author was no less a person than the distinguished Frederick A. P. Barnard, S. T. D., LL. D., L. H. D., from 1868 to 1884 President of Columbia University, New York, from whom Barnard College takes its name. He was a teacher in the New York Institution from 1832 to 1838, and wrote this letter in one of his vacations to his colleague and friend David E. Bartlett. It was found among Mr. Bartlett’s papers after his death, and was read by Dr. Job Williams, to the great amusement of the audience, at the Celebration of the Seventy-Fifth Anniversary of the Founding of the New York Institution in 1893. The “grammar thinner than the grammar” mentioned in the last paragraph is “Barnard’s Analytic Grammar, with Symbolic Illustration,” published in 1836, now a rare and costly work. “Mr. Brown” is the Rev. Samuel R. Brown, who became a teacher in the New York Institution at the same time as Dr. Barnard and Mr. Bartlett, and resigned in 1835 to become a missionary in China.

NEW YORK, *August 29, 1836.*

MY DEAR FELLOW: I received to me a letter. You wrote a letter to me with a pencil. I was very pleasant to read a letter about gunning some woodchucks and a partridge. I write a letter to you. To-morrow I give my letter to Mr. E. B. Peet Steward. Mr. E. B. Peet carries my letter to the city. Mr. E. B. Peet send my letter to the post-office in a stage. I received to you my letter. You are glad to read my letter. You show it to Mr. Brown. Mr. Brown reads my letter. He is laugh. I remember Mr. Brown. Mr. Brown taught his class in the institution for the instruction of the deaf and dumb. Mr. Brown was tired to teach his class

enough. Mr. Brown was better the preaching to the missionary. Mr. Brown was resigned. Mr. Brown could the signs to the pupils in the chapel. Mr. Brown go. Mr. Taylor can not the signs to the pupils but some. I can understand Mr. Brown. He make signs. I can not understand Mr. Taylor very, but I can understand him. Mr. Taylor is better some the signs Mr. Lambert than Mr. Taylor most. Mr. Brown is sailing in a ship. He is preaching the people. The people have idols. They respect and bow the idols. Mr. Brown is asking the ignorants, "Can the idols hear?" The people can not the idols hear. They is shame. They cast the idols. Mr. Brown is glad because they cast the idols. Mr. Brown lectures the Bible. The people are never reading the Bible. They are strange to read it. They read it enough. They believe for the Bible. Mr. Brown is writing a letter. He receives it to this country. Mr. Bartlett finds the letter with satisfy. He is reading about the people casted the idols. He publishes the people. They are spread. The people praise Mr. Brown sailed in a ship.

Forty pupils are married. They learned done very wise. They went away they worked each other the people. They were very rich enough. They ask the beautiful lady married them. She was very happy to would married them all. They had $1\frac{1}{2}$ children. I was very wonderful, because I have no the $1\frac{1}{2}$ children. They are more children than I. I shall work hard. I shall be rich 200 or three 100 dollars and 50 dollars. Also a cow. I shall tell the beautiful lady to be married. She will be married at all. I shall be the family. I shall husband the beautiful lady. I shall live in a house in a country. I shall have more the children than $1\frac{1}{2}$ children. I shall send the children. Mr. Peet will be very glad for the children. He will receive the children in the Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb in the city of New York, James Milnor, president, H. P. Peet, secretary, Martha Dudley, matron. Mr. Bartlett will teach the children in his class. They will be very more wise.

You and Mr. Brown run through the woods. You gun the birds and squirrels. The birds fly in the air. The squirrels enter into the holes. You and Mr. Brown is sorry. There is one bird in the bag in the sunset. A bird is little. Large the birds far on the limb. You and Mr. Brown look the gun crooked. Little the bird near on a fence. You look the gun righteous with your eye feet six or three. The bird fall on the ground it is dead. A dog brings the bird into a bag. You proud yourselves with the bird. The bird is proved you can gun with righteousness. You carry the bird. You go home. Assiduously you pull a feather. The bird is naked. To-morrow you eat the bird breakfast little. In the meantime you proclaim the friends about the bird gunned skillful.

I write the grammar thinner than the grammar. I have written it. I shall have written it. It will have been written by me. I had written it last Thursday. He stereotyped it. His name is Mr. Redfield and Lindsay. He had stereotyped it some. He will stereotype it more continually till. He is not the past stereotypes. He is the fast other than.

Nevertheless he is not the fast worker as I am impatient. The grammar will have been done at all. It has the twenty pages. It shall have the eighteen pages. It shall have pages enough.

YOUR AFFLICTIONATE FRIEND.

Deaf-Blind Persons.—At the public session of the French Academy held November 24, 1899, Mr. Ferdinand Brunetière announced that the Montyon prize of \$400 had been awarded for that year to Mrs. Marie Germaine, in religion Sister Sainte-Marguerite of the Daughters of Wisdom, for the successful education of two deaf-blind girls, Marthe Obrecht, who lost sight and hearing at the age of four, and Marie Heurtin, who was deaf-blind from birth. Both these girls had been taught to read, write, speak, and work.

Hereditary Deafness in Dogs.—Mr. G. W. Murdoch, Naturalist Editor of the *English Stock Breeders' Magazine*, in a letter to the editor of the *Annals*, makes the following statement concerning hereditary deafness in dogs:

I have traced hereditary deafness in several breeds of dogs, notably in Dalmatians, the old "carriage dog" of our forefathers. I attribute the cause of this infirmity to the following: In former times, up to within a quarter of a century ago, in this country it was customary for this kind of dogs to run along the roads under or after gentlemen's carriages. It was also customary to shave down, or off, their ears. While on the roads the dogs had dust blown into their ears which produced canker, and other ailments, finally permanently injuring the drum, etc., of the ears; result, deafness. Shaving dogs' ears (especially these Dalmatians) is no longer practised; it has not been for many years; but the breed shows a great tendency to deafness; it is, in fact, hereditary. To a more or less degree the same holds good of pointers and setters, possibly the result of their forebears "standing fire" in the old form of sport known as "shooting over dogs," instead of "driving" game, as now universally practised.

Hutton's "Specimen Dictionary of Signs."—Thirty-one year's ago Mr. George Hutton, a veteran teacher of the deaf, described in the *Annals* (xiv, 157-182) a method of mimography invented by himself by which, he claimed, the natural sign-language of the deaf could be readily and clearly presented in writing or print. In the following year he died. At the Seventh Convention of American Instructors for the Deaf,

held at Indianapolis a few months later, his son, Mr. J. Scott Hutton, then Principal of the Halifax Institution, gave a further exposition of the method, but could not add very much to the article in the *Annals*, inasmuch as the specimen volume of a Dictionary of Signs which his father had prepared some years before was lost, and there was little left to illustrate the range and character of the method. A committee was appointed by the Convention to inquire into the merits of the subject, and at the next Convention, held at Belleville, Ontario, in 1876, the committee reported that, as the specimen volume was still undiscovered, they were unable to arrive at any definite conclusion as to the practical utility of the method. Two years ago, as announced in the *Annals* (xliii, 396), forty-three years after the book was written, twenty-eight years after the death of its author, and eight years after the death of the author's son, who had made repeated but unavailing efforts to ascertain its whereabouts, the long-lost volume was placed in the hands of Mr. James Fearon, the present Principal of the Halifax Institution. It has since been deposited in the library of the Volta Bureau, and the Bureau has had a few copies of it reproduced by photography in blue-print.

While the specimen Dictionary possesses remarkable historical interest for the reasons above stated, and while it bears witness to the ingenuity, industry, and benevolence of its author, the practical value of the method it illustrates still seems to us questionable. The "key" to the method is simple in theory and is easily mastered in practice; perhaps a person acquainted with both the key and the sign-language represented could read the mimography; but, lacking either, the mimography is scarcely more intelligible than Egyptian or Mexican hieroglyphics. That, as the author hoped, it would be useful as an instrument of instruction and a test of comprehension in schools for the deaf; that it would save time and labor, by taking to some extent the place of a living teacher, as ordinary print does with children who can read; and that it would render the Bible intelligible to the uneducated deaf of every nation under heaven, seem the fond dreams of a visionary.

Periodicals.--Four new independent periodicals for the deaf have recently appeared: the *Deaf World*, a weekly paper published since last July, at 119½ South High Street, Columbus, Ohio, by Mr. Ed. I. Holycross, a former pupil of the Ohio Institution; the *Catholic Deaf-Mute*, a monthly, whose character is indicated by its name, published at 291 Glenmore Avenue, Brooklyn, New York; the *Eye*, a monthly published at Maitland, Missouri, by Mr. Oren M. Elliott, a former pupil of the Missouri School; and *Once A Week*, a large illustrated weekly, published at Evansville, Indiana, by Mr. Charles Kerney, formerly an instructor in the Indiana Institution, and edited by a corps of able deaf men and women, most of them graduates of Gallaudet College, with Mr. James L. Smith, instructor in the Minnesota School, at their head. Sample copies of *Once A Week* are sent free to any address on application.

Il Sordoparlante, the monthly periodical published during the past five years at Alessandria, Italy, by Dr. F. Sbrocca, has ceased to exist.

Reports Received.—We have received the following Reports of Schools published in 1899 in addition to those previously acknowledged: Horace Mann, Manchester (England), Maryland, Mississippi, Ontario, South Australian, Tokyo (Japan); published in 1900, Bristol (England), Catholic Male (Quebec); also the Report of the South Australian Adult Mission for 1899.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

WANTED.—By a lady who has been associated with the deaf from earliest childhood, and who has a thorough knowledge of the sign-language and methods of instructing the deaf, a position as teacher in a school. References. Address J. T. C., Box 16, Romney, West Virginia.

"FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH." A course of systematic instruction in language, in four volumes, by Caroline C. Sweet. Price, \$3.84 per dozen. Single copy, 40c.

"STORY READER, No. 1." Sixty short stories prepared for young pupils, compiled by Ida V. Hammond. Price, \$3.84 per dozen. Single copy, 40c.

"**STORY READER, No. 2.**" Short stories prepared for young pupils. compiled by Ida V. Hammond. Price, \$4.20 per dozen. Single copy, 45c.

"**TALKS AND STORIES.**" Contains nearly a hundred short stories and seventy-five conversations for practice in language, prepared by Wm. G. Jenkins, M. A. Price, \$6.00 per dozen. Single copy, 60c.

"**BITS OF HISTORY.**" One hundred stories gathered from United States History, compiled by John E. Crane, M. A. Price, \$9.00 per dozen. Single copy, 90c.

"**A PRIMER OF ENGLISH AND AMERICAN LITERATURE.**" By Abel S. Clark, M. A., with 25 portraits of authors. Price, \$7.80 per dozen. Single copy, 75c.

"**WORDS AND PHRASES.**" Examples of the correct English usage, by William G. Jenkins, M. A. Price, \$6.00 per dozen.

"**STORIES FOR LANGUAGE STUDY.**"—Adapted to pupils of the third or fourth grade, compiled by Jane Bartlett Kellogg. Price, \$4.20 per dozen.

Published by the American School, at Hartford, for the Deaf, Hartford, Connecticut.

Mr. JAMES DENISON's "**Manual Alphabet as a Part of the Public-School Course,**" published in the *Annals* for October, 1886, has been reprinted in pamphlet form, accompanied by the beautiful manual alphabet drawn and engraved from photographs under the direction of Dr. J. C. GORDON. Copies may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at ten cents each, postage included.

STAMMERING, Stuttering, Lispings, Nasal Tone, Shrill Voice, etc., corrected by educational methods. Articulation Drill for Aphasic Patients; also for persons having Cleft Palate or other Malformation of the Vocal Organs; and for children exhibiting tardy development of the Faculty of Speech. Lip-reading taught to adults who have lost their hearing. *David Greene*, 1122 Broadway, Madison Square, New York.



Your friend
J. W. Brown

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

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JUNE, 1900.

LANGUAGE TEACHING IN CONNECTION WITH OTHER STUDIES.*

LANGUAGE teaching in its various phases has perhaps received more attention from educators of the deaf than any other subject connected with our work. Methods and devices for helping our pupils to understand and use the English language have exercised the ingenuity and brought forth the best thought of the profession. Indeed, so much has been said and written on this subject that there is little left to be said. However, as our ranks are being constantly increased by those new to the work, it may not be amiss if I present some methods or means with which most of you are already familiar.

At our last meeting, when it was suggested that the language teachers discuss the subject presented for our consideration, the question arose in my mind, "Are we not all language teachers?" Of course all of us necessarily teach language to some extent, yet I doubt if any of us, when not directly engaged in that branch of teaching, give it the attention its importance demands. To develop in our pupils the power to comprehend language and the ability to use it with facility is the most important part of our work. It is chiefly through language that

* A paper read before a Teachers' Meeting at the Texas Institution

we attain all the higher and nobler ends of education. And since it occupies this prominent and fundamental place in our educational structure it should be taught and used in every school-room and in every shop.

In history, geography, or any other study the pupil meets new language—a new word, phrase, idiom, or figure of speech—in almost every paragraph. How to give him a thorough understanding of these new terms is a difficult and tedious problem. The greatest obstacle in the solution is the element of time. With a class of sixteen pupils containing three distinct grades, the teacher has time for little else than to give the few definitions and explanations which seem absolutely necessary.

The limited time allotted to the course of instruction in most of our institutions is responsible in no small degree for the deficiencies in the education of the deaf. The hearing child in possession of all its faculties begins to comprehend language in its infancy, at which time its education really commences, and it is continued under most favorable circumstances until the completion of at least a common school course. This is generally done about the eighteenth year. Yet we expect deaf children to begin at the same place, and, handicapped as they are, to reach the same destination in little more than half the time. If, as Ruskin has said, “it takes a lifetime to learn a language perfectly,” how can we expect our pupils to learn to comprehend the English language easily and use it freely in the course of nine or ten years?

If we could get our pupils at the age of six or seven, keep them from fourteen to sixteen years, and modify the course of instruction accordingly, we could send them out from us with a command of English and a general knowledge approximating that of the graduate of the High School. We could give nearly double the time we now have for the completion of the ordinary branches; and could pursue with thoroughness the plan which I have in

mind and which I have practiced to some extent with two of my classes.

The plan is first to give the pupil a thorough understanding of the text ; to teach him all the new language found in the lesson. I would have the pupils in the preparation of the lesson make out lists of all words and expressions they do not understand and bring them in for explanation. If you have never tried this you will be surprised at the length of the lists. To dispose of all these in a conscientious manner will often consume the whole period allotted to any given subject. But the learner is then prepared, and not till then, to make the facts and knowledge of the text his own. The next step is to ascertain by judicious questions whether he has done this, and to develop language further.

The first step is the most difficult, and requires judgment and skill on the part of the teacher. I do not believe that any one method is the best for teaching every new form of language. But I do believe that in many cases the most natural and logical way is to encourage and help the pupil to deduce the meaning from the context. This is a simple process and yet there is no better mental discipline. It is the way in which we have acquired most of our language. How much of your vocabulary did you learn from the dictionary? How often in conversation or in reading have you met with words or phrases the meaning of which you could not guess from the context? To show you that our pupils are capable of this deduction I will give you a few examples performed under my own observation. In a lesson on physiology the word *lubricate* was used. Instead of signing or defining it, I wrote on the large slate : " Mr. S—— lubricates his engine to make it run easily." I think every one in the class caught the meaning. Now, I submit that this was the easiest and most natural way to teach the meaning of that word. Besides, it developed

thought and fixed the meaning in their minds. A few days ago the word *attend* came up for explanation, and there were several signs made expressing a different idea from that of the text. I wrote, "Mr. Blattner attended church in town yesterday; I attended Gallaudet College eight years ago." That was all that was necessary to give them a pretty clear idea of the meaning of that word.

In another lesson this paragraph appeared: "The prophet said the white people come here, give the Indians whiskey, make them drunk, and cheat them out of their lands. He told the red men they must stop drinking fire-water," etc. Here was a word the class had never seen before, and it seemed so easy to infer the meaning from the context that I decided to see if they had done this. I put the word on the board and asked each one what it meant. All except one answered "whiskey." This one made the sign for playing a stream of water upon a burning building. This was no mean effort, considering that she had lost sight of the context and was thinking only of the two words in their compounded relation.

I believe that our pupils should be led into this process of deduction as early as possible. Instead of teaching a new word by signing or defining it, weave it into living language the other elements of which have already been learned. Professor Hill, of Harvard, in his "Elements of Rhetoric" says in regard to the acquisition of a vocabulary: "Words may, of course, be gathered from a dictionary, but it is far more profitable to study them in the context." I do not mean to condemn definitions, but those found in our dictionaries are of very little help except to our most advanced pupils. A real definition which we are sure the class will comprehend may be given whenever our judgment dictates.

Drawing is another means that we can employ to advantage, not only in general explanations but in teaching

language. It is to be regretted that teachers of the deaf are not all adept in the art of free-hand drawing; yet I do not think that any, through a feeling of diffidence, should hesitate to do what they can whenever an occasion arises. I will give one or two illustrations of what may be done along this line. In a history lesson some days ago we had the expression "loaded almost to the muzzle." Finding the pupils did not know the meaning of the word muzzle, I drew on the board a picture that was recognized as a gun, although it was not a very artistic representation. Then I proceeded to load it "almost to the muzzle." I pointed out the muzzle and the load, and all was clear. But I thought I might improve a little on my gun, so I drew another showing an ordinary squirrel load. Over the first I wrote "loaded for bear" and over the second "loaded for squirrels."

In a lesson on geography the process of smelting iron ore was explained. It was rather a difficult explanation for a fifth-grade class. I asked them to explain how iron is separated from the rock, and found, as I expected, that they knew nothing about it. I put on the board a smelting tower showing alternate layers of coke and ore, with an opening at the bottom for the molten iron to be drawn off into troughs in the sand where the pigs are formed. After a little explanation I think they got a fair conception of the process.

Now for the questions. Questions are asked primarily to develop knowledge; to find out what the class knows or does not know about the lesson. But incidentally, and especially in our work, they may be made to develop language. There is no better way of teaching such words as *cause* and *result* than by incorporating them in questions. There is no natural or suggestive sign for such words, and it is not always easy to give satisfactory definitions for them. But they can be learned by association just as the beginner learns the names of objects. The

proper answer is first given by the teacher. The pupil associates the answer with the question and gets at least a faint idea of the meaning. The next time you present a similar question he begins to look for a similar answer, and after a few repetitions he gets a clear understanding of the meaning of these words.

We should use every opportunity to present questions beginning with "Tell about," "Tell something of," "Tell what you can of," etc., "Explain," "Describe," "Give an account of," "Mention," "State," "Relate," "Compare," etc. After the affirmative and negative forms of answer have been learned I would avoid such questions as much as possible except when an additional statement was expected.

The proper preparation of questions requires much thought. I believe in asking questions in strong standard English, and so framing the question that the answer shall be a complete thought, comprising oftentimes a whole paragraph. I would not even with an intermediate class ask questions by repeating the language of the text, the first question comprising the first sentence, and the next the second sentence, etc. Such questions in my opinion are absolutely worthless. The pupil exercises no judgment in determining the answers, but simply selects them in succession.

Take the following paragraph from the story of Franklin in "Stories of Great Americans for Little Americans." "There was snow on the ground. Franklin spread a white cloth on the snow. Then he spread a black cloth near the white one. When he came to look at them, he saw that the snow under the black cloth melted away much sooner than that under the white cloth." Instead of asking, "What was on the ground?" or "Was there snow on the ground?" "What did Franklin spread on the snow?" etc., I would put the question like this: "Explain how Franklin found out that a black thing will

take in heat more quickly than a white one." This is rather a difficult question for a fifth grade, to be sure. But it brings out the thought contained in the paragraph.

I do not think we should hesitate to ask a question properly, or to introduce a new word or expression in it, simply because we are afraid the pupil cannot answer it. I fear that in our anxiety to make things easy for our pupils we often overdo the matter and withhold from them language they ought to know, and would know if we gave them a chance. I am not in sympathy with the tendency to make everything easy sailing for the pupil. We should leave some obstacles for him to overcome. If we feed him daily on predigested food his powers of assimilation will not be developed. It should be our constant aim to bring our pupils up to the standard and not to lower the standard for their benefit.

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SCIOLISM IN TEACHING.

IN giving adhesion to one of the several methods employed in the instruction of deaf children, how many teachers can affirm that they are guided solely by principle rather than by self-interest? How many know or care concerning the relative excellence of the several systems of instruction more or less in competition at the present time? With the most laudable intentions to be honest and faithful in the performance of duty, is it not true that we often mistake the promptings of interest for principle; that we are indifferent to a close study of the philosophy of our work, and imbibe "convictions" that are nothing more than prejudices?

Intuitive opinion governs much of our conduct in the classroom as elsewhere. The springs of action are most

of them buried out of sight in automatism ; we come to perform certain actions without knowing why we do so, or how, or when, or under what advice we acquired the habit. We have set views on certain subjects without knowing exactly why we possess them, even while acknowledging that, as teachers, we should be keenly alive to what we are doing, and why we do it.

Many of us are more the creatures of tradition than are the members of other professions. The excuse we usually make is, "The system decides for us. It is of no avail that we examine into the *rationale* of our work." But is it fair to ourselves and to our pupils that we should lay claim to firm convictions when in most cases we are the victims of rank prejudice? Examination and constant re-examination of one's attitude toward questions of method and thought is the only way of earning the right to teach helpless children, who look with such confidence on our ability to guide them rightly.

There can be little excuse for the total surrender of judgment and conscience on the part of the teacher, either to the sages of old or to the authorities of the present. We can respect the opinions of others while using some thought in forming our own. Every generation must meet and solve the same old problems over again, and should determine them better in the light of added experience and the exchange of fresh thoughts. With every individual rests the solution of the grave problems presented him in the awakening intellect of the deaf child, and this he must accomplish by the best light he has, and should constantly look for more light by which to re-solve them. Whatever those in authority may tell him to do, or whatever he may be brought up to regard as his duty, the teacher stands before his pupils in the relation of direct responsibility to them, and should not for a moment think of himself as a mere automaton.

"Teach the curriculum?" Of course. "Follow the

program?" Yes, that is for what it is prepared; but there is much in the *way* one follows the rule "Obey orders." A teacher may be literally true to his compact with his school, and true to himself at the same time, if he will only keep thinking. No principal of any ability hampers a teacher in freedom of thought, but rather requires that certain things be accomplished, leaving to the teacher to find the way to do so. There are so many things to be thought about that, in entering a new field of action, the best way at first is to follow the beaten path by stepping into the shoes of one's predecessor, as it were, and wearing them for a while, but it is necessary to get our own shoes as soon as possible, and to change them as often as they wear out.

Chief among the causes which make the teacher's work most exacting is its demand in one's personality of a combination of the philosopher and the executive. Tact may rule over expedients, may suggest the skillful compromise, the timely look or touch of the hand, but it cannot construct a system of education. To this task the builder must bring a profound knowledge of educational philosophy, and a comprehensive acquaintance with educational material. But these are not always included among the qualities of a good executive, and the teacher cannot afford to be without any opinion whatever of the system by which he is required to work. He must have his own ideal or his work will be perfunctory. To do, day by day and hour by hour, what he is told to do is to work at a trade, and teaching is not a trade, but an art. Yet obedience is necessary, though often at war with originality and sometimes even with conscience. The progressive principal will ever prefer the teacher who shows some judgment in the manner in which he performs his work, to the natural-born slave who depends upon and follows directions with no thought that he is working upon souls.

There is a golden mean to be found in the tactful

teacher, still the shortcomings of even the most tactful are great. One possesses keen philosophic apprehension and something like a mastery of principles, but little organizing ability and little personal power in the school-room. Another, while he controls his pupils easily, does not know how he does it, and, while his results are satisfactory, he has an uneasy feeling that much of his work is injurious cram. Very few who are gifted with quick and keen observation and profound reflective power have the "push" and alert activity of the successful practitioner. We all belong to one type or the other, and must cultivate the qualities of the opposite type.

Fortunate is the teacher who, realizing in early youth his proneness to "dream noble things" rather than to do them, has already devoted years to the cultivation of a habit contrary to his first nature—a habit of quickly applying thought to some practical purpose. There is nothing like this habit to cure the vagaries of an unchecked dreamer, and make a philosophical, artistic *worker* of him. Perhaps the best teachers have developed in this manner.

Fortunate, too, is the teacher who has early learned to recognize his own superficiality, and to listen to the deeper reasonings of others, and try to apprehend law and apply it in work. A vivacious temperament, thus trained down to philosophic work, will swell the list of our almost ideal teachers.

How to correct the deficiencies of self more tardily discovered is the foremost question with many an earnest teacher of middle age. There is one way, and that is to keep working at the weak point in one's efficiency. Let the visionary work hard on his lesson plans for the day, and confine his pedagogical thinking to this and the causes of his own recent failures. Let the teacher who feels he lacks insight practice introspection, and frequent the company of humanitarian thinkers. Skill may come slowly to the one and suggestions dimly to the other, but

there will be some improvement with patient effort. Steadiness of aim and ceaseless striving give increasing power. Although no teacher ever reaches perfection in his work, yet he becomes more inventive, more fertile in resources, and his plans work with less friction as his faculty is increased by practice. Both these classes of self-critics may also take comfort in the thought that they escape the hopeless inefficiency of the self-satisfied teacher.

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THE TEACHING OF LANGUAGE DURING THE FIRST, SECOND, AND THIRD YEARS OF A DEAF CHILD'S SCHOOL LIFE.*

IN writing a paper on such an important topic as the teaching of language to deaf children, it would be irrelevant, as well as a waste of energy, to enter into any form of discourse which attempts to discuss the value of language as a factor of deaf-mute education. We all know its value, and acknowledge it to be of paramount importance; for if, as Fénelon says, "the true aim of education is to train for the duties of life," then the giving of language alone to the deaf child is fulfilling that aim.

In an essay of this character it will be almost impossible to avoid touching on principles, methods, and arrangements of methods that are in operation in many of our schools for the deaf—methods that are valuable, yet evidently incomplete, or there would have been no request

* This article is an essay written in competition for the first Braidwood medal, given by the British National Association of Teachers of the Deaf, 1899. It was awarded the third place on the list of competitors, scoring 77 per cent. of the total marks.—ED. ANNALS.

for a paper of this title, and for which is offered the great honor of the first Braidwood medal, by the National Association of Teachers of the Deaf. "There is nothing new under the sun" is an adage which may be corroborated throughout this essay. Indeed, if it were not so, its very novelty would prove fatal to its acceptance by the profession of teachers of the deaf.

A whole is here presented which is not exactly a system of adaptation to progressive ideas, but, like the evolution of Greek architecture, is based upon a foundation dug out by past masters, supported by the methods of many practitioners of the present day, tried under varying circumstances of residential and day-school conditions, proved by results, and backed up with twenty years' practical experience.

At the outset it is necessary to look at the subject under consideration with both eyes, and carefully to analyze it to see of what it really consists, so as to give us a better view of the problem we have set ourselves to solve.

Language, according to the best lexicographers, is defined as "the means of expressing human thought." With the value of this definition, logically or psychologically, we as teachers of the deaf have little to do. We have to deal with the ingrafting of language into our deaf children, so that it may become of daily utility. That is to say, we have to deal with its practical application and operation.

As educators of the deaf we look deeper into this subject of language teaching than the ordinary pedagogue. There are layers upon layers to be uncovered before we reach the fertile soil; we must delve down to our children's innermost minds for that fertility, and then we have only found the ground of our future operations. In other words *we must simplify our methods*. After this task is completed there still remains an investigation, by us, of the principles on which clear and useful expression of

thought can be based, and after that a suitable arrangement of these principles. Then we may venture upon the work of cultivation. In short *we must also simplify the language to be taught.*

We cannot deal with the topic under this head without again taking into consideration our pupils. Although we must stoop so low to reach the minds of our deaf children, we must not deceive ourselves into the belief that there is an inferior mentality in the deaf child compared with the hearing one. The erroneous belief still obtains too widely that the mind of a deaf child, on entering school, is a blank tablet on which no impressions have been written. We must dismiss this false notion. He sees, knows, and understands a great deal that he cannot express. He is full of ideas, gleaned by observation—sometimes wrong ones, but often right ones—about many things. It is possible that he has a perfect comprehension, for example, as to the respective uses and qualities of a knife compared with those of a spoon. Long before he has come under the influence of school education he knows the dangers attending the use of the one article and the harmlessness of the other.

True, through lack of speech and interchange of thought by a common language, his mind may have become stunted; but it awaits expansion. Our work is to begin this expanding process and to unfold the cloud that enshrouds his mind by putting him in possession of a vehicle of thought. For this purpose we must reduce our methods and the subject taught to medicinal doses.

We can simplify our methods in many ways, but there are broad lines upon which we can go, which offer the least resistance towards meeting the necessities of general cases. One way, and the way we wish to enforce, is summed up under the following principles:

I. We should introduce nothing into our teaching that we cannot develop towards immediate usefulness in language.

II. Whatever we teach in the shape of language, let it be something that the child feels he cannot do without using and using properly.

III. We learn to write and speak our language correctly by using it; therefore we must make use of what we teach.

These principles kept in view, our methods simplify themselves. They are the embodiment of the Intuitive method. If this intuitive process, of which we hear so much, and equally admire, means anything, it means the immediate use of knowledge acquired. When we have supplied our pupil with certain information about one thing, he uses that information to increase his knowledge of other things which may have the same or different characteristics. It is the putting of "two and two" together, and its application is so simple that we here advocate it in every stage of language teaching. This Intuitive method is *not* identical with the so-called Mother's method. The latter is one purely of imitation and repetition; the former one of application and reasoning. The mother teaches by a score of attempts the word "father"; the child repeats it and learns the word as applied to the man who is responsible for his welfare; but by his own application of the term and reasoning of the idea it carries, he arrives at the conclusion that the man who is responsible for Billy Smith's welfare is Billy's "father." The child has given a wider importance to the word by his own intuition; and it is this effort on his part we seek to cultivate. What can be more pleasant to the child under such a method of teaching than to see his own efforts bear fruit in this manner? And this fruit-bearing is nowhere seen and obtained to better advantage than in the early stages of language teaching. For example: We inform our pupils of the simple fact that "the sky is blue," and from this general truth they tell us of twenty other things of this color, even if each vary in shades of that hue; or that "coal is black," and we are paid back at a

similar rate of interest. The mother never waits for this development, she never looks for it, she knows it will come, and so she goes on supplying her child with key-words and key-ideas, and the child himself uses the key to open a thousand and one doors.

Simplicity is not the only educational quality of such a method. The processes at work in the child's mind cultivate, in this order, thought, reasoning, judgment, and application. Note the action of these faculties at work in the following exercise, which comes easily within the limit of time laid down in this essay :

Holding up a ball, we explain—inform—"The ball is round."

We point to the door-knob ; the child answers inquisitively—"round?"—Yes !

Pointing to a boy's head, again we get—"round?"—Yes !

Pointing to an ink-well, again we get—"round"?—Yes !
(Each time there is less and less of a question about the reply.)

Next we hold up a pencil ; he thinks, and again says—"round!"—Yes !

Then we hold up a penny ; again he thinks, and putting his mental "two and two" together, replies—"round!"—Yes.

During the exercise his doubting expressions were seen gradually to disappear, and confidence took the place of doubt. Thus a dual development has been going on—one mental, the other moral. We have expanded his mental capacity by giving him new ideas ; we have strengthened his moral character by giving him new courage. But see where we have come from in our reasoning process ; from the roundness of a ball to that of a penny, a totally different roundness. We told the child but *one* fact and he has given us *five* others based on that knowledge. Is not this the principle that Euclid laid down? He gives

us and demonstrates a theorem or proposition; he expects us to make the deductions by the aid of the primary facts laid down. This is the method we adopt for the simplifying of our task of educating the deaf child in every branch of school work. His moral education depends on a key-word or model example of right and wrong, and by this model he is guided in all his actions. His mental education depends on a similar key, and with that key he opens the door of knowledge. It is for the teacher to supply as a master-key a model that is at once true and comprehensive.

No teaching, from the mother's lap to the highest university, is absolutely free from the mechanical element; but custom gives mechanical actions another name and calls them natural. This mechanical element may appear very prominent in the lessons set out in the plan of this essay; but it is only apparent, because we are dealing with stages in a child's education in language which are peculiar and strange to the common observer, and of which the most of us have no personal recollection of passing through,

While lisping children, touched with infant fear.

Exponents of systems and methods of teaching foreign languages have taken great pains to show us how easy it is to learn a language by following their own particular ideas of adaptation. These methods have all been tried by teachers of the deaf, but without the desired results. The Gouin method is undoubtedly the nearest approach to the method of nature, but still we ask for some better way to get our deaf children to possess language.

Linguists and orthographists tell us how easy it is to learn a language as it stands—that is, without a mixture of mechanical exercises—if we will but remember that the vocabulary of a laborer, a clerk, a clergyman, or an author consists of only so many tens or hundreds of words. Knowledge of this fact has not materially assisted us in

the past. We know that vocabulary is no more language than the gamut of music is an oratorio. With the word taught we must get it at once into sentence form; then we can call it language. The baby says, first of all, "Dada," this grows to "Dada coming," then "Dada coming soon," and finally, "Dada is coming soon." It is this building-up process that brings us *words* to express the *ideas* that intuition carries with it, and with these thoughts before us we can enter our practical work of the First Year's Language.

THE FIRST YEAR OF LANGUAGE.

The instrumentalities capable of being used for the purpose of expressing our thoughts, and those actually more or less used—hence more or less natural—are uttered or spoken words, pictorial, aerial, or written signs, and gesture and grimace. In teaching language to the deaf the first of these has our prior claim because of its more human and rational basis, and so we deal with spoken language.

With orally taught pupils it is generally accepted that the articulation course extends over a period of from twelve to fifteen months. Now it is in our opinion neither wise nor desirable to look upon this period as wholly given up to the learning of the sounds; the hearing child has not completed all his sounds before he attempts to inform us that "Dada's tomin'." Why should we interfere with nature's rule of economy to use what we have before we cry for more? For this reason we classify part of this period in the first year of language. In the first six or nine months we have taught sounds which can be put into words and these words can be put into sentences. These sounds, roughly speaking, are wh, h, f, th, t, and k, possibly s and sh; of the vowels we have ä, â, oo, and probably two or three of the short vowels ă, ě, etc.

For the purpose of getting words we make a selection of words strictly phonetic and so far have come across the following: hat, hoop, hoof, hook, foot, etc. (The teacher must make his own selection which will be seen to be considerable.) These words wherever possible are illustrated on the blackboard, thoroughly repeated till as near perfection as possible with a deaf child, then both written and drawn by him in his exercise book.*

Another three months has brought us an accumulation of words, from additional sounds taught, so that now our lessons can take some definite shape, the nouns for sentence-forming, the verbs for action, as presently shown:

What is that? That is a hat.

—	?	—	hoop.
—	?	—	hook.
—	?	—	foot.

Hop, sit, run, jump, open, etc., may be given in commands; then construct sentences: †

What do I (you) do? I hop.

—	?	I sit.
—	?	I run.
—	?	You jump.
—	?	I open the desk.

Nothing appears in the exercises given above that the child cannot say at this stage, either in the question or the answer. Why then shall we not utilize what the child may fairly call his own? But what of the value of such exercises? They are invaluable. We have broken the

* We cannot refrain at this point from condemning most strongly the common practice of keeping children drilling at difficult and useless combinations of sounds. Nothing in the school curriculum can be more uneducational, nothing so discouraging to a child, and nothing more trying to the teacher of articulation. The practice should be abandoned.

† A word of denunciation of another common and pernicious practice is necessary here. Some teachers give such action-words as laugh, cry, smile, sneeze, yawn, cough, frown, etc. They are useless and trashy, and are the resources of an inferior teacher.

monotony of the articulation drudgery for one thing; the child has lost nothing in speech, on the contrary he has gained in useful speech and made it language. We have put into his mind the idea of interrogation, and the little desire he had hitherto to make inquiry for himself has been expanded in one direction at least. It now dawns on him that he can hold converse and that we can satisfy him if he asks. We attach great value to this first lesson of interrogation; it is to be the foundation of all our future building-up. We never let him cease asking, "What is that?" "What do you do?" He gets an answer, too, no matter how far he understands the full import of that answer. He knows it is an answer to his query; we let him imitate our reply and forgive his imperfections of speech because he is asking a question. Above all we are laying down an educational principle that is to characterize all our future teaching. Questions of the future are not going to be the monopoly of the teacher; the pupil is going to ask questions, and questions will hold a prominent place in all our lessons. There is as much language in a question as there is in the answer to that question. So we go on; each month brings its tale of new words until we have completed the sounds, then we start on our second stage of language proper.

We are no advocate of the old-fashioned grammatical method of teaching language by teaching the grammatical value of words classified as nouns, verbs, subject, and predicate; but we do believe in finger posts being erected here and there to direct us and our pupils in their onerous labor. The children have seen us go to the blackboard morning, noon, and afternoon and make an entry in certain spaces thereon. We have written in these spaces the time of opening and closing school, the day of the week, the month and date; in fact, we have drawn their attention to this habit repeatedly, and these lines are now as familiar to them as the slates they use:

Time.	Day.	Month.	Date.	Year.	Season.
5 past 9.	Monday.	July.	5th (fifth)	1899.	Summer.

and they convey to them a meaning. Similarly when we tabulate "a cat," "a dog," "a cow," under the word *Animals*, "a pear," "an apple," etc., under *Fruit*,

or under	<i>nouns,</i>	<i>verbs,</i>	<i>adjectives,</i>
we write	a pen,	to hop,	black,
	a slate,	to run,	large,

we are not touching in the least upon an obsolete method. We are putting ourselves and our children in possession of a key that will open many doors. They are simply sign-posts to guide us through a period of transition. They will be more useful in the future when our lessons take a more rational form in conversational and colloquial language, which at the present are barely within the limits of this paper.

We are still within our First Year's Language Course, but it cannot be said that all our efforts have been given to language; we have had to complete the articulation. Now we begin in earnest by numbering our lessons 1, 2, 3, etc., and developing each lesson by regular extensions of the same. Calculating that each lesson and its development counts a week by time, we have yet six months to run before our First Year's Language Course is up. Let us see how we occupy this time.

It is immaterial now whether we keep to words of strict phonetic value or not, and this fact gives us an opportunity of completing our plan of sticking to names of the commonest and most useful objects around us—objects in school, the house, parts of the body, clothing, etc.—things that we can touch and handle.

LESSON 1. *a* —

What is that?

That is a pen.

— ?

— a book.

— ?

— a slate.

boy, girl, desk, chair, pencil, etc.

Each lesson should consist of about twelve lines, illustrated and copied neatly into exercise books.

As an exercise on this lesson—to cultivate the power of lip-reading and add to the child's vocabulary—the pupils should now pick out objects whose names are unknown to them, and ask the teacher "What is that?" The teacher dictates—

That is a ——. That is a ——. That is a ——.

A word may be added here on a very important point in lip-reading exercises, although the proceeding is considered by some teachers to be rather irregular. When a new word of unphonetic value, such as "pencil," has been given from the lips and correctly repeated by the whole class, it is wiser to write the word on the black-board or spell it alphabetically than permit the children to make a shot at it in its phonetic garb and thereby misspell it. The secret of good spelling among the older generation of the deaf lay in the fact that they only saw words in their true English dress. With the decadence of finger-spelling, the errors in spelling by oral pupils have been made prominent and made to approach somewhat the faults of hearing pupils.

LESSON 2. *the* —

(It should be shown that "the" distinguishes a particular object and is generally used to denote only one of its kind in the room.)

The following construction of the lesson is advocated, as it keeps a record of all new words, and the words "Question" and "Sentence" will be required later on.

<i>New words.</i>	<i>Question.</i>	<i>Sentence.</i>
	What is that ?	That is the door.
clock	— ?	— the clock.
ceiling	— ?	— the ceiling.
	— ?	— the table.

floor, wall, easel, duster, chalk, poker, window, etc.

(The distinction of “a” and “the” even at this stage is an intuitive exercise that should be taken advantage of.)

LESSON 3. an —

New words.	Question.	Sentence.
	What is that ?	That is an apple.
apron	— ?	— apron.
	— ?	— egg.
	— ?	— ink-well.
orange	— ?	— orange.
umbrella	— ?	— umbrella.

The following key is useful and should be made prominent during this lesson and copied with the lesson in exercise books.

an { a — (ass)
e — (egg)
i — (ink-well)
o — (owl)
u — (umbrella)

As an exercise on this lesson the pupils may be asked to add to the list. The faculty of recollection is exercised in recalling words learnt during the articulation course and from words they remember having seen in their reading lessons. Easy reading books should be used thus early.

LESSON 4 (without the article).

New words.	Question.	Sentence.	
	What is that ?	That is paper.	} <i>Materials.</i>
iron	— ?	— wood.	
	— ?	— iron.	
	— ?	— glass.	

String, flesh, skin, bone, leather, water, cloth, wool, etc., may also be taught to complete the lesson. By digging the finger-nail into the substance we can explain that it is substance we are speaking about and not "a" (that is "one") wood, glass, etc.

The form "a piece of" is dealt with at a later stage.

LESSON 5 (*Recapitulatory*).

a —, the —. an —.

<i>Question.</i>	<i>Sentence.</i>
What is that?	That is a pen.
— ?	— a —.
— ?	— the —.
— ?	— the —.
— ?	— an —.
— ?	— an —.
— ?	— —.
— ?	— —.

What is *this*? may be taught here.

Exercises on the previous lessons may be given by—

(1) Simply pointing to the object and demanding the sentence or question.

(2) Filling in blanks to both questions and answers.

Capital letters, which have hitherto been strictly ignored in such forms as "A cat" or "Book," may now be taken up by teaching the names of the teachers and children in school and persons familiar to the children.

All vocabulary should have been kept in small letters, because if written with capitals in single words they have to be unlearnt in sentence-forming.

LESSON 6. *Plurals (those and these).*

<i>New words.</i>	<i>Questions.</i>	<i>Sentences.</i>
	What are those?	Those are two —s.
	— those?	Those are four —s.
	What are these?	These are two —s.
	— these?	These are six —s.

Method.—Referring to the previous lessons of singulars, the plurals ending in “s” only can safely be initiated here. From the questions “What is this—that?” we can lead up to “What are those—these?” showing two or more objects. Two separate lessons should be given to establish each form of question and clearly distinguish between “these” and “those” (*i. e.* things near and things at a distance).

The value of numbers up to 20 can be reckoned on as having been taught before this period in arithmetic lessons, so that we get readily such phrases as “two slates,” “three books,” etc.

LESSON 7. *The Verb.*

During the articulation course noun-words are not the only ones we have selected as we went on. We have previously said that the question “what do I (you) do?” has been brought in. We trust that very much importance will be attached to the simple exercises under this head. Action is the life of the school-room and we have always encouraged it. Now, however, we set about it in a methodical and regular manner by giving commands and putting into sentences the two forms of the language contained therein, viz., the command and the answer to the question.

<i>Questions.</i>	<i>Sentences.</i>	<i>Commands (Teacher).</i>
What do I do ?	You hop.	Tom, hop.
— ?	You run.	Ned, run.
— ?	You sit.	Jane, sit.
— ?	You jump.	Mary, jump.
etc.		etc.

<i>Questions.</i>	<i>Sentences.</i>
What does Tom do ?	Tom hops.
— Ned do ?	Ned runs.
— Jane do ?	Jane sits.

Commands—(Pupils and Teacher).

Tell Ned to hop. Hop, Ned. Run, Jane.

<i>Question (by Pupil).</i>	<i>Answer (by another Pupil).</i>
What does —— do ?	—— jumps.
etc.	etc.

Pupils act as teacher and *vice versa*.

The following exercises on this lesson will next be given, to which we can safely devote at least one month's work.

Ex. i. What do I do ?

Ex. ii. What *does* —— do ?

Ex. iii. Who hops ?—jumps ?—etc.

Ex. iv. Extension of the predicate. I hop *to the door*, etc.

This latter exercise brings us to the prepositions—to, on, near, etc.

LESSON 8. *Prepositions.*

New question-forms come in prolifically now, and we give a separate lesson to each form of question.

Where do I (you) stand ? Where do I (you) —— ?

Where is the book ? Where is (are) the —— ?

What is on the table ? What is —— the —— ?

What are in the cupboard ? What are —— the —— ?

This we consider would amply satisfy the most exacting teacher for the First Year of Language.

THE SECOND YEAR.

Approximately speaking, our Second Year begins with the pronouns.

LESSON—*Pronouns.*

my, your, his, her.

These are best taught by reference to *clothes, things belonging to, parts of the body, etc.* Suitable questions must be given, both singular and plural, showing distinct ownership.

What is that?

What are those?

—— — this?

What —— these?

Whose book is this?

Whose —— is that?

—— books are those?

Whose ——s are these?

(This form also brings us to the apostrophe "s"—Tom's, Mary's, etc.)

An idea we have found of value might be given here:

In *vocally* answering a question we are content with an abbreviated answer, *e. g.*, "That is Tom's," or merely "Tom's," but in all *written* replies we insist on a complete answer. There is nothing more to be discouraged than the vocal replies, "My name is John Smith. I am ten years old."

LESSON—*Commands extended.*

To insure complete attention to these we would ask the teacher to bear in mind what he has already taught and to bring in his commands the following: a, an, the, that, this, those, these, my, your, his, her, Tom's.

Give Tom a ——. Give Mary an ——.

Give Joe the ——. Give Jane that ——.

Give Tom Mary's ——. Give Mary Miss ——'s ——.

This lesson may be further developed by other verbs—bring, get, etc.

LESSON—*me, him, her.*

As a repetition of the above lesson the words "me, him, her," may be taught.

Give me a ——. Bring me the ——.

Etc.

Etc.

Phrases or the subjective forms of language have full scope here—"Thank you," "You are a good boy," "Hurry up," "How slow you are," etc., etc.

LESSON—*have*.

<i>New words.</i>	<i>Questions.</i>	<i>Sentences.</i>
	What have you* — — ?	I have a — — .
	— — ?	I have an — — .
	— — ?	I have two — — .
many	— — ?	I have many — — .
some	— — ?	I have some — — .
large	— — ?	I have a large — — .
little	— — ?	I have a little — — .
	— — ?	I have a blue — — .
	— — ?	I have a green — — .
pretty	— — ?	I have a pretty — — .

Changes on several question forms can be rung on this lesson.

What have you (I) — — ? Where is your — — ?

How many — — have you ? etc.

Demands should be made for the pupil to ask the teacher. All questions should be reciprocated.

LESSON—*has*.

The whole of the previous lesson and its exercises may now be given with “has.”

LESSON—*Adjectives*.

In the two previous lessons, there has been great scope for questions and answers bringing in the adjectives, which in this lesson take a definite shape under the following question heads :

<i>What color ?</i>	<i>What shape ?</i>	<i>What size ?</i>	<i>What kind of ?</i>
blue	round	large	good
black	square	small	bad
etc.	etc.	fat	pretty

* In your pocket, in your hand, at home, etc.

This column should be kept on a separate blackboard and added to from time to time as new adjectives appear; but on no account do we recommend a long list to be written and "learned by rote."

LESSON—*Past tense of Verbs.*

This lesson could have been taken a little earlier for the sake of getting on with diaries, which we shall presently consider.

It is advised to keep to verbs having their past tense in "ed" for the first few lessons.

We show here side by side the *method of teaching* and the *matter taught*, which in the writer's opinion is only fair in a competition of this nature, so that a type of the work done by both teacher and pupil can be judged.

<i>Method.</i>	<i>Blackboard.</i>
We begin teaching the past tense of verbs by first referring to the present already taught.	What do I do? You open the door.
What do I do? What does — ?	— you do? I push the —.
We show here that the replies to these questions refer to a time "now," but explain that we want an answer befitting a time gone before—past—a finished action, and change these questions to a time "before," completing the action before asking the question	etc. etc.
	What does — do? — opens the door.
	— do? — pushed —.
	etc. etc.
	What do I do? You jump one —.
	What does — do? — sits on —.
	What did I do? You pushed —.
	— do? — touched —.
	— do? — opened —.
	— do? — pulled —.
What <i>did</i> I do ?	
and initiating the pupil into the correct reply.	

In another lesson we take the irregular verbs, sat, wrote, etc. But we at once bring in the prepositions—jump over, sit on, etc.

The scope in this lesson for the intuitive idea is great. We may get thereby the correct application of many pre-

viously taught nouns and pronouns, *e. g.*, John's, his, Mary's, her, etc.

"He, she, and it" could readily be brought in with such exercises, as well as the various distinctions which characterize the prepositions—on, under, near, etc. Even the double or compound sentence with "and" *e. g.*,
———, and ———

also the double questions "Have you a brother and how old is he?" could be initiated. This opens up a wide field for the working of the intuitive process, and provides material of various shades of meaning to which only children who *think* can rightly apply their past knowledge in the construction of language; for example, "A man pushed a boy and *he* fell down," is intuitive in a double sense.

Diaries, etc.

We have now a foundation for the construction of diaries, letter writing, and elementary composition.

These subjects are occasionally taken earlier than at the end of the second year of language, but it has been found that if one begins too early with this form of language, so many elementary details creep in, requiring special lessons to establish, that valuable time is spent and little accomplished in the shape of real work. We begin with yesterday in our mind's eye, and having taught the past tense can do so legitimately by singling out the prominent actions of the day gone by.

"I got up at seven o'clock yesterday morning," and so on, and so on.

One of the greatest bores of this exercise to the teacher is the repetition, day after day, that the pupil "washed his hands and face, and combed his hair." Such entries must be made, but there comes a time when we say, "Yes, yes; I know. Tell me something else," and so on. (Oh! the difficulty of getting just what we want from our

pupils. This is one of the aims of diary writing.) Its chief value, however, in these lessons lies in the questions that abound in every sentence: "What did you do yesterday morning?"—with reference to getting up, getting breakfast, coming to school—"What time did you get up?" "What time breakfast?" etc. Let us emphasize once more that these questions are not the essentials of one particular action: they are preludes to a score of actions, to be kept before our pupil and used by him at every opportunity. It is a knowledge of questions that makes responsive children; a child without the power of interrogation is always "dumb."

THE THIRD YEAR OF LANGUAGE

Following closely upon our beginning diaries, nay, even before, we have had to provide for *object teaching*.

Our curriculum, if drawn upon educational lines, has been arranged for certain set lessons in language, apart from the ground work which we have been called to designate under nouns, verbs, prepositions, etc. We may enter here upon those set lessons; they are diaries, object lessons (from objects, models, and pictures), series lessons (Gouin method), reading lessons (from print), simple problematical arithmetic, and incidents occurring in or out of school. The Third Year's course deals chiefly with these.

But there are many threads of foundation work yet to pick up in this year, which have not been dealt with.

We enumerate some of these that demand immediate attention before we can claim to have got outside the boundaries of elementary language.

There are for our consideration—

1. The more difficult plurals of nouns.
2. The plural verbs.
3. The extension of the time idea—days, months, hour of day.

4. The negative form "not" applied to both nouns and verbs.

5. Simple phraseology and technical terms of the drawing, kindergarten, woodwork, laundry, and cookery classes.

6. Simple sentence forming on words set under various headings of people, things to eat, fruit, things made of, etc.

7. Simple composition on an object.

8. Further extension and use of questions under—

What is (are, am, has, have, do, does, did, etc.) ——?

Are ——? Am ——? Is ——?

Have ——? Has ——?

Do ——? Does ——? Did ——?

Who ——? Whose ——?

etc., etc.

We do not expect to complete those in this year, but they are approached.

A skeleton of a model object lesson is here given, the results of which we cannot too highly praise. It is sketched out to form boundary walls for a child's loose and imaginative desires to run wildly into disconnected language. From such a model we have seen some very readable compositions from third year pupils, and submit it as one item of this paper, worthy of being adopted by teachers.

In the very early stages of its adoption the teacher should select objects that have a variety of characteristics to help the description, and this is suggestive of having lessons prepared.

OBJECT LESSON—*A pen.*

Questions bringing out the sentences are written on a separate blackboard.

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{ That is a pen.
 { *The* pen is round.
 { It is long. It is ——.
 { It is made of ——, ——, and ——.

HAS	{	The pen has a —.
		It has a —.
		It has a —.
VERBS.	{	The pen writes on a book, paper, etc.
		It lies on the desk.
		It is kept in a pen-tray.
		It —.
I and other people	{	I write in my book with a pen.
		I dip it in the ink before I write.
		I do not write on my slate with a pen.
		I —.
		My father bought a silver pen.
		He carries it in his pocket.
		Tom broke his pen yesterday.
		You gave him another pen,
		and so on.

In the area—doubtless more important than wide—that we have covered in these three years of language teaching, we may have cut corners off here, skipped over unseen patches of fertility there, omitted some of the simplest and most necessary elements of child language throughout; but, whatever have been our faults, we know this, that wherever we have been, our pupils, more than metaphorically speaking, have been with us. We have endeavored to go at a pace with which our dullest pupil could keep in step. Sometimes he has lagged behind while his fellows were anxious to go ahead, but it has been a pleasant journey. We have learned new lessons of sympathy with our “slow coaches”; we have been further enlightened as to the capabilities of our brighter ones; and we are satisfied that, after three years’ toil over that ever-weary road of teaching language, our pupils can tell us something about “A pen” which proves once more its mightier value over “the sword.”

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REPORT OF A VISIT TO THE UNITED STATES
AND THE BRITISH ISLES TO STUDY THE
EDUCATION OF DEAF CHILDREN AND OTHER
MATTERS PERTAINING TO THE DEAF, MARCH
17 TO JULY 15, 1899.*—III.

BRITISH SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

Before taking up the subject of the British schools, I will make a few remarks.

It is so short a time since the law of 1893 (in Scotland, 1891), went into operation, that its full effect has not as yet, by far, had time to show itself. Thus it has not yet been possible to make all the parents, nor even the civil authorities, fully understand that compulsory education now exists for all deaf children as well as hearing, and I was told that the deaf societies or individual deaf persons who interested themselves in the matter, in many places, had to work hard to get the school boards to use their authority and send the children to school.

In consequence of the comparatively recent beginning of the reform work, most of the English schools are old-fashioned. Although the buildings generally are large, roomy, and well arranged, the old arrangement of having several classes in a single room, which is particularly injurious to oral instruction, has been only partly abolished.

The worst obstacle to good instruction, inherited from the past, is, however, the low salaries paid to teachers, which makes it very difficult to secure good teachers. Strong efforts are being made to obtain better salaries, and many signs indicate that better times will soon be at hand.

* Concluded from the April number of the *Annals*, page 223.

(a) ENGLAND.

1. *The School in Liverpool; Headmaster, Mr. Coward.*

There were ten classes, of which three were instructed exclusively by the manual alphabet, while the others were oral classes. The buildings are rather old-fashioned. Here, as in most English schools, there were more classes than classrooms, so that several classes had to be placed in one large room—an arrangement nowhere to be found in America, not even where the old Manual method is used. The objections to this arrangement, however, are recognized in England, and efforts are being made to have it changed.

When I visited this school sixteen years ago, instruction in speech was given only to pupils who on entering school had retained some of their speech. It can therefore be said that a considerable change has taken place. The number of pupils is about ninety.

2. *Training College, 11 Fitzroy Square, London.*

This school, which is conducted by Mr. William Van Praagh, one of the first to bring the Oral method from Holland to England in the sixties, is at the same time a general school for the deaf, based on the Pure Oral method, and a training school for teachers of the deaf. Another school of the same kind exists in Ealing, a small town in the west of London. Mr. Van Praagh spoke hopefully of the prospects of the Oral method in England. He rejected absolutely the instruction of any portion of deaf children by the Manual method, and he was, besides, positively opposed to deaf-mute societies—social and benevolent associations of the deaf. I found the pupils well instructed, but the methods in use did not differ materially from those in use on the continent and in Scandinavian schools.

3. *The Jews' Deaf Home, 61 Nightingale Lane, Wandsworth Common, London.*

This handsome school has about thirty pupils. The

Principal, Mr. Kutner, said that his maxim was toleration towards other methods, but that, personally, he was unequivocally in favor of the Oral method for all the deaf.

Here, as everywhere else, where lip-reading is excellent, it was nevertheless plain that this means of communication is not quite as certain as writing or even finger-spelling. But it was argued that the ability to speak is of such transcendent importance that the uncertainty of lip-reading cannot be regarded as of special consequence. Comparatively few people can communicate with the deaf by means of finger-spelling.

The pupils in this school appeared especially intelligent. They were of all grades of intellect.

4. *Mr. S. Schoentheil's Private School*, 38 St. Mark's Road, Notting Hill.

Mr. Schoentheil showed me a very dull pupil, and explained that such hardly derived much benefit from instruction by speech. Otherwise, as the school contained but a few pupils, he was able to give considerable attention to the dull ones.

5. *Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb*, Margate.

This school, which is conducted by Dr. Richard Elliott, is the oldest and largest school for the deaf in England. It was founded in 1792 and contains 350 pupils. Originally it was situated on the Old Kent Road, Southwark, London, but about twenty-five years ago it was moved to Margate at the mouth of the Channel. At the Old Kent Road there is still a department for beginners, to the number of about fifty pupils. Here the children are given a trial before it is decided whether they should be placed in the Oral or Manual department. The course of study is still only on an average of six years. In the otherwise well arranged building of the Margate School, no little inconvenience is experienced from the fact that several classes do not have separate classrooms, but are gathered together in one large room. The building was erected at

a time when it could hardly be foreseen that the Oral method would be chiefly used.

There were at Margate twenty Oral classes and four Manual classes. Dr. Elliott was of the opinion that up to twenty per cent. of the pupils could not profit by the Oral method to such an extent that speech could be used as the medium of instruction. Still he desired that the speech acquired during the first or trial year should, as far as possible, be retained and developed. I asked him if the deaf children did not consider it a misfortune to be assigned to the Manual department. "Yes, indeed," was the reply. I could also see for myself that those in the Manual department considered themselves less favored by nature than the Oral pupils. Such a strong feeling of the inferiority of the Manual method cannot exist where, as in many of the large schools in America, instruction in speech is only given as an extra study, while all the pupils otherwise use manual spelling and signs.

I had the pleasure of witnessing a very interesting exhibition of games and sports. It was obvious how open-air exercise and play develop the energies and resources of the children.

I had a conversation about the London Board Schools with the superintendent, Mr. M. W. Nelson. He informed me that he had separated about twelve per cent. of the pupils as being feebly endowed mentally, and had them instructed principally by means of the manual alphabet and writing, while pains were also taken to maintain their speech. He thought that about half of these pupils, that is, about six per cent., could not be advantageously instructed by the Oral method. Arrangements were being made so the children could begin schooling at five years of age, by collecting them in kindergartens during the first two years. Thus the instruction would be extended to eleven years. At present it is nine years according to law, from seven to sixteen years of age.

From the *British Deaf Monthly* for August I notice that the Technical Education Board of the London County Council has granted scholarships to two deaf boys for their technical instruction. The magazine considers this a small but good beginning.

From the same magazine for July I see that negotiations have been in progress between the School Board and the Educational Department for the erection of a school for forty pupils of weak mental capacity. The Department made the condition that the school should be located outside of London. The number of pupils appears to correspond pretty closely to the six per cent. who are considered unsuitable for oral instruction.

6. *The Leicester Board School for Deaf Children.*

I visited this school, which is one of the oldest municipal schools in England. During the fifteen years of its existence it has used the Oral method, especially, as I was informed, because the deaf in Leicester had a different mode of talking with one another from the deaf elsewhere in Great Britain. Leicester is a city of 200,000 inhabitants, and the school contains about forty pupils. The Pure Oral method is used exclusively, while writing is chiefly used in instructing the less capable pupils.

Upon my meeting a gathering of about thirty grown deaf in Leicester I found that their way of talking to one another was to some extent similar to that used among us, in that the spoken words were accompanied with gestures and grimaces. But there was this difference, that the manual alphabet was used to a large extent between words—a natural result of the intermingling of deaf from other places, who “spoke” the common deaf-mute language.

(b) SCOTLAND.

7. *The Glasgow Institution.*

This school, which is prettily situated at Langside, a little outside the city, and accommodates 150 pupils in its handsome building, unfortunately closed for the vacation the same day that I arrived in Glasgow. I learned, however, that the greater portion of the pupils now receive instruction in speech, while the Manual method was used sixteen years ago. The situation was about the same as in Liverpool. The building was particularly well equipped, and contained two swimming pools, one for the boys and one for the girls. As far as I could learn there was a separate schoolroom for each class.

8. *Edinburgh Institution, Henderson Row.*

This school, which contains seventy pupils, has an old-fashioned building, but a few years ago a gymnasium with a large swimming pool in the basement was added.

As the closing examinations were in progress I could see but little of the schoolroom work. The method resembles largely that in the American schools which still preserve the main features of the original method. All the pupils learn finger-spelling. Signs are tolerated, but are not used in the instruction. Pupils found adapted to learn speech receive instruction therein. The Oral method had been considerably extended since my visit to this school in 1883.

Here, as in many other English and Scottish schools, the girls received instruction in cooking.

9. *Donaldson's Hospital, Edinburgh.*

The word *hospital* is understood in Edinburgh to mean a benevolent institution. Donaldson's Hospital, whose building, in the Tudor style, is one of the finest belonging to any educational establishment in Europe or America, and one of the finest buildings in Edinburgh—which is saying a great deal—is a sort of children's home on a

large scale for 400 pupils—300 hearing and 100 deaf. The two classes are instructed separately, but are otherwise steadily together in the workshops, in the dining-rooms, and on the playgrounds, and the uniform is the same for all. This arrangement has existed for forty years, and, as the Manual method of instruction was originally used, this school is said to have contributed largely to the diffusion of a knowledge of the manual alphabet in Scotland. When I visited Donaldson's Hospital sixteen years ago, oral instruction had not been introduced. Now, all the children who are considered adapted for such instruction are taught by the Oral method.

In the English schools instruction in trades is rarely given, but much importance is attached to sloyd and pasteboard work for the youngest classes, while instruction in clay-modelling is given to some extent. Drawing plays a more important part in England than is usual in European schools, because the work of the pupils is judged annually by the commission which is sent out by the South Kensington Museum to supervise drawing instruction in the public schools. Only in America have I seen drawing instruction in some respects carried even farther, culminating in water-color and even oil-painting. But at the corresponding age the English pupils are doubtless equally advanced.

As a reason for not giving instruction in trades it was stated in England that the pupils are too young—from fifteen to sixteen years—when they leave school. In America it is different, since the pupils as a rule are four or five years older than the English when they leave school.

CONCLUSIONS.

In America much is found that may be seen in Europe, but on a greater scale. The large schools there are larger than the largest in Europe; but, on the other hand, there are comparatively more very small schools. While com-

pulsory education is indifferently enforced, especially where it has long been in practice, so that not a few children do not attend school at all, and many are taken from school altogether too soon, yet on the other hand a considerable number of pupils receive much longer and more complete instruction than at any European school. The regular course in the State of Massachusetts is ten years, with permission to keep the pupils two years longer. In the State of New York every deaf person is entitled to receive instruction between five and twenty-three years of age. The latter extreme, however, is not used except by those who come to school well advanced in years. The usual course is twelve years. The instruction is free, as in the public schools and the high schools connected with them, in addition to which the poor are supported free at the schools. Well-to-do parents may, however, pay both for board and tuition.

What impressed me even more than the length of the course of instruction, the abundance of school apparatus, the complete, yes, in some respects, magnificent, equipment, was, however, the manner in which efforts were made all through the instruction, from the kindergarten to the highest classes, to make the pupils think for themselves, to be independent and original in thought and action.

Thus a characteristic question asked by the teacher of the little three, four, or five year old pupils in the kindergarten was this: "What shall we do now?" And without hesitation one of the propositions made by the children was followed. Even the most incomplete attempt to advance an original idea was encouraged, and the teacher rarely corrected an error or an incomplete idea by substituting her own in its place; but instead a sort of discussion would follow between teacher and pupils, or among the latter themselves, and the best idea would prevail. The child is thus spurred on to think better and

more thoroughly next time, and not to depend on the teacher to take the lead. This system culminates in the highest classes, where the pupils express their opinions about what they read and about the events of the day. This freedom to form their own opinions about everything, with a corresponding liberty in and out of school within the limits of the prescribed rules, seems far from being conducive to willfulness. On the contrary, I have seldom met children and young people who all through gave such an impression of being courteous and refined as the pupils of the American schools. Confidence is placed in them, and they repay this confidence by deserving it.

Otherwise the greatest difference between the American and European instruction (aside from the kindergarten work, which is carried very far in America) is, perhaps, the great development of the intuitive method of instruction. Action and the exhibition of objects play a preponderating part during the earlier years, and in the more advanced classes it is continued by the constant use of the rich collections of the schools.

When the instruction by intuition is highly developed in the kindergarten and youngest classes of the school proper, then the education in the other classes naturally takes the right course and attains an effectiveness which otherwise would be incredible. This, perhaps, is the explanation of the fact that the acquisition of knowledge proceeds with greater energy in the middle and upper classes of American schools than is usual in Europe.

The American text-books are attractive typographically, and freely illustrated with cuts tastefully executed, which cannot fail to develop the child's sense of beauty. That the American schools for the deaf possess a more complete line of text-books than the European naturally follows from the fact that the former in the highest classes give instruction in subjects which, on account of the shorter time allowed in school, are unknown in Europe.

On the other hand, the various schools are not agreed as to the character of the books to be used. Some schools use books written especially for the deaf; others, on the contrary, use only books that are used in the public schools, and reject on principle books prepared especially for the deaf. The method of instruction makes no difference in the choice of books. Thus the books published by the Combined-System school at Hartford are used at the Oral school in Northampton, while the school in Ohio uses exclusively the books that are used in the public schools.

I mentioned the kindergarten work. The necessity for this is acknowledged by all, and the advocates of the most opposed methods are united on this point. The only difference is as to the age at which the instruction should begin. Many, among them especially the advocates of the Oral method, think that the instruction should begin at three years of age, some even at two years, while others, among them even oralists, consider a somewhat more advanced age, up to six years, as the most suitable. On the whole, I think that five years is the age favored by most at present, while many, however, would place it lower under favorable conditions.

It is pointed out that it is a misfortune for the deaf children to go without instruction or guidance during the most receptive years of their unconscious childhood. This more than anything else keeps them behind as compared with hearing children. When instruction can begin at a very early age, a better foundation is laid for acquiring the common language; and, especially as regards the Oral method, the use of speech and, above all, lip-reading, will be strengthened when the instruction begins at a time when the child's ability to think and reason is still in a period of transition from unconsciousness to consciousness.

Aside from the question of the good organization of the

schools, the kindergarten question is, on the whole, in my opinion, the most important.

We have at present, in Norway, an eight-year course of study. To be sure, this time is short compared with the nine-year course recently adopted in Great Britain, and the ten or twelve year course so common in America. But as our eight-year course is by no means used to its fullest capacity, because the machinery of instruction, on account of untoward circumstances, does not work with the power and precision that is desirable, therefore our attention for the immediate future may be best directed toward making the present course more efficient. But when we have succeeded in getting this properly adjusted, I think that attention should next be directed toward kindergarten instruction, which is to prepare the way for the full utilization of the succeeding years of childhood and youth, and which will be a valuable means of counteracting the peculiar shortcomings that have been characteristic of our deaf.

The thinly distributed population of our country makes it rather difficult to introduce an arrangement corresponding to that used in so many places in America, and now also begun in England. If we agree that the small child should not be torn from its home, unless the home is so poor that its existence there is more harmful than beneficial, we must try to find a way by which the kindergarten instruction in an extensive, thinly-settled country may be brought into the same relation to the home as it is in a city of a million, with numerous day schools scattered all over it.

Is it possible in our country to give the deaf child and its parents guidance during the earliest years, so important for its development, without at the same time separating the child entirely from parents and home?

I believe it is possible to solve this problem without too great expense. But I think it is best to feel our way

and make experiments which need not necessarily commit us to follow the same plan in the future.

This experiment I have thought should be carried out thus: An experienced teacher should be selected to travel about within a prescribed territory to look after the deaf children for the two years previous to their admittance to school. She might spend two months of each year at each place. Besides giving the child instruction in kindergarten work, she might give the parents and friends of the children advice as to the course to be pursued with the little ones, which might also prove of advantage to the older deaf by informing people how to make themselves understood by the deaf. According to experience it frequently is the case that those afflicted with deafness are clustered together in the country districts; the distribution changes all the time, but is seldom even over a territory at a given time. Under these circumstances, such a teacher could doubtless take charge of a large number of children.

But the teachers and principals of the various schools should also be constantly familiar with such kindergarten instruction as a foundation work. Therefore a small kindergarten class should be established, at first only at a single school, composed partly of children living near the school, partly of those whose reception is distinctly desired, and finally of such as are better off away from home. In the kindergarten class, of course, no division of the children according to ability need be considered.

As long as such an arrangement is only in the experimental stage, it would not be advisable to add to the present law and make instruction obligatory during the two years preceding the age at which the law now makes it obligatory.

But, as already mentioned, nothing can or should be done in this matter until the present school course has been utilized to the utmost.

I would also propose that instruction in cooking be given at once in all the schools for the deaf. As matters now are, the training of the deaf girls is altogether too one-sided, and, in consequence, almost the only occupations open to them after leaving school are sewing and factory work. To support themselves in any other way is for most of them impossible. In connection with cooking, instruction might also be given in other house and farm work, which might be especially useful to the country girls. Also boys should be given opportunity to take part in gardening and farming. Nearly four-fifths of the pupils in our schools are from the country.

I cannot close these observations without expressing the wish that in the near future some Norwegian teacher of the deaf, thoroughly familiar with the English language, may be sent to America to study the methods of instruction in vogue there, especially the kindergarten system, and action and object teaching, and the various methods used in the earliest Oral instruction, and, in fact, all those points in which the American methods differ from those generally followed in Europe. I would urge this all the more, since during my stay in America I learned that it is very seldom that European teachers visit America, while a large number of American instructors have been in Europe, and are acquainted with the methods and systems there used in instruction and school management. My own trip can only be considered a hasty glance at a new world. Its exploration is yet to come.

Of course, there are also many practical arrangements as to buildings, apparatus, and appliances, in day schools as well as boarding schools, which deserve to be studied by Norwegian specialists.

Until the Norwegian instructors become acquainted with the American methods of action and object teaching, it would hardly be proper to talk of increased or special appropriations for materials, pupils' libraries, etc. Al-

though I keenly realize the poverty of our schools as regards those things which, aside from the teachers' instruction, tend to widen the pupils' mental horizon, yet I do not now dare to present any proposition to remedy this evil.

As regards the organization of the schools for the deaf in our country, I will let what I have already written stand as a premise from which an article giving my conclusions may follow.

I, therefore, at present, make the two following recommendations :

1. That instruction in cooking and household management for the girls, and gardening and, where practicable, farming for the boys, be introduced as regular subjects in our schools for the deaf as soon as possible.

2. That kindergarten instruction during the two years preceding the age at which school attendance is obligatory at present be introduced as soon as circumstances warrant.

A translation of the day-school law adopted by the State of Michigan is appended hereto.*

LARS A. HAVSTAD,
Ljan, near Kristiania, Norway, October 9, 1899.

A WOMAN'S VIEW.

THE last Tabular Statement of American Schools for the Deaf, published in the January number of the *Annals*, gives the number of male teachers as 458 and of female teachers as 857. Fifty years ago the percentage of female teachers was 4 ; now it is 65.

The old excuse of supply and demand has much to substantiate its existence nowadays. The conditions of life

* This law was printed in the *Annals* for September, 1899, page 395, and is therefore not reproduced here.—TRANSLATOR.

have altered so greatly in the past half century, that whereas fifty years ago a self-supporting woman was a rarity, now she is an ordinary every-day fact. Men are rising and declaring that women are forcing them out of many positions that they formerly considered their indisputable right. And they are confronted with the same old excuse of supply and demand, cheap labor or none at all.

In the profession of teaching this is most evident, as witness the figures quoted above. There are several reasons for this condition of affairs.

Women are admittedly the best persons to act as instructors of youth. They have the patience and understanding of childhood so necessary to a successful teacher.

That their services can be secured so much more cheaply than those of men is not altogether their fault, nor exactly to their credit. The individual must suffer for the lack of proper training of the many.

The old theory that a woman incapable of other work could teach school was eradicated long ago. At the present time a special training is required and a year or two of preparation and practical work are demanded. A college education is not a requisite, though a desirable qualification.

It was the knowledge of women's disqualifications and lack of training that first caused such low values to be placed upon their services. It will be some years yet before they can, as a body, justly demand equality of compensation with men. Still, there are cases where this has already been secured, but in the profession of teaching not much encouragement is offered in this direction. Is it not largely because such a great number enter upon the work expecting to make it a temporary makeshift until some man appears and asks them to assume other responsibilities? Just as they begin to be of some real use and to understand the work before them, their careers

in that direction cease, and the learning process is all repeated by another novice. The inefficiency of novices retards the advancement of those who are devoting all their strength and thoughts to the tasks before them, with no intention or desire to leave their present sphere of labor.

That there are always half a hundred, more or less, applicants for every vacancy in the ranks of women teachers doubtless sometimes influences the scale of salaries of the more faithful and experienced.

There are some women as capable of taking every duty assigned to the men connected with the schools as the men themselves. Yet, being women, they must content themselves with just half the pay, because some of their sex are unable or unwilling to assume any extra duties, such as men expect to be called upon to perform and are prepared to assume at short notice.

It would be well if all schools required from both men and women a certificate of health from an insurance company before engaging them to become the educators of countless children. The day of namby-pamby semi-invalidism is past. As a general rule the young people of the present are models of healthy vigor. With proper care and attention to ordinary common-sense rules there is little reason why they should not remain so. Usually the men are most reliable on the score of health. No sane man tries to carry on his business and attend to half a dozen other things at the same time, as some women do. For instance, would any man attend to his business and after business hours spend his time making his own clothes, manage a house, and frequently spend half the night at some social function? Something is sure to suffer; it is generally the business, and frequently the misguided individual.

The average man gives all his strength of mind and body to the business in hand, and, that finished, he feels

that no one has a right to demand of him efforts in other directions, unless it suits his personal inclinations. Here is another charge against the women. They try to carry burdens heavier than they can bear, as often self-assumed as thrust upon them. When women learn to be as untrammelled and self-assertive as their brothers, their physical welfare will be decidedly advanced and their value in their profession will rise proportionately.

What right have women to expect or demand equal compensation with men in their field of labor if they propose to shirk various duties and responsibilities on the plea of their sex? When they show a disposition to share them, even though their compensation may be but half that of their male co-laborers, and prove themselves capable of the work, though it may bring them no pecuniary return at the time, it will serve to make the way easier for those who follow, and gradually the value placed upon female service will be increased.

Now that the female element predominates to such an extent in educational departments, why does not the sex have greater influence on the questions of the day pertaining to educational topics? A wide-awake, progressive body of women can wield a powerful influence, and there are certainly many working unobtrusively in their various positions.

Their powers of reason and expression are certainly no whit below those of the sterner sex, yet in a convention of teachers of the deaf, at least, they have little to say. It has frequently been said that women are constant talkers; observation inclines me to doubt the truth of the assertion; the ability of men in that line appears far more highly developed. Considering the large number of women employed in educating the deaf, it would seem that they should have more voice than at present in assemblies in whose aims they should certainly feel much interest, instead of blindly and humbly following the dictates of some

ions as to its advisability from a social standpoint. Time to question as to whether they should labor is by. It is our duty to help those who are trained and fitted to work safely and to get enough salary to keep mind and body together. Their needs are just as great and numerous as those of men; their expenses are just as great. Many of these women are supporting other persons. To do the best work in their profession they should be relieved as far as possible from all worryment about dollars and dimes.

Education in this country will never be what it should be until a higher money valuation is placed upon the services of teachers, until their professional rights are more fully recognized, until their social position is that accorded to other professions. The teaching profession is just what public sentiment makes it, its requirements what the public demands, its compensation represents the value placed upon it by the public.

The schoolmistress as developed in America is the benign discovery of the nineteenth century. If the work of training the young is to be made a sex monopoly, I should say by all means let women have it, and pay them a salary commensurate with the labor and responsibility incident to the undertaking. But no such alternative is forced upon us. It would be a great injustice to our charges to surround them entirely by women. The work of teaching should not be given over to a single sex. It requires both masculine and feminine qualities and examples properly to train and discipline a child.

The problems presented in the task of teaching are complex and hard; there is inspiration and dignity in the work, and the profession of a teacher is a noble one and should justify the ambitions of both men and women.

I do not believe this disparity of sex in our profession is to be accounted for altogether by the matter of wages. Stalwart young men evade and avoid the sentimental

of the "The New Era." The former are
the most unpleasant women at the en-
d of the movement as the head throws the follow-
ing for a fully equalizes them. It should
be plentiful in the ranks as to re-
sults. and women should learn to thi-

There will always be competition, but it is not
the same of selfishness, as it to
you are often the worst enemies of women.
to see the advancement of others of the
their progress in every conceivable
are the cause of many failures. A
to help their female co-laborers to s-
achieved by a woman, and her stro-
of views that receive attention
well informed persons, are nearly s-
her among the sisterhood who
is.

SYLVIA CHAPIN BALDWIN
Instructor in the Ontario Institute
Belleville, Ontario, Canada

A LIST OF DEAF-BLIND PERSONS IN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA.

The following list of deaf-blind is not submitted as complete, but only as the result of several years' investigation, and I think I am safe in saying that the exact facts are not very far from the statements I give. I have excluded from the list of deaf-blind all who have enough of either sight or hearing for practical uses, and all who, in addition to total deafness and blindness, are feeble-minded.

EDUCATED AT THE NEW YORK INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB, WASHINGTON HEIGHTS, NEW YORK.

Wm. Sprague. Graduated with sight, has since lost it. Is now in the Gallaudet Home for the Deaf, Wappinger's Falls, N. Y.

Eliza Levy. Graduated with sight, has since lost it. Is now in the Gallaudet Home, but as she is somewhat demented, it will probably be necessary before long to place her elsewhere.

Richard Clinton. Admitted deaf and blind.

Martha Morehouse. Admitted deaf and blind from Newark, N. J. After completing her studies, entered the Philadelphia School for the Blind. Is now in the Newark Almshouse. Has no sense of smell.

Orris Benson, Admitted deaf and blind, now in the Institution ; a bright boy.

Katie M. M'Girr. Admitted deaf and blind, now in the Institution. Lost sight and hearing at eight. A very bright girl, remarkable for the ease with which she has learned new prints. An exquisitely lovely character. I am afraid to attempt to do her justice.

James Caton. Admitted with sight, lost it about two years after. Had no sense of smell.

Samuel Moses. Graduated with sight, has since lost it. Was formerly in the Gallaudet Home; now in the ward for the blind at Blackwell's Island Almshouse.

Stanley Robinson. Admitted with sight, lost it gradually. Is now employed at the Institution.

EDUCATED AT THE PERKINS INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND,
SOUTH BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

Laura Bridgeman. Dead. Had no sense of smell.

Oliver Caswell. Died 1896, aged 60.

Edith Thomas, of Massachusetts.

Willie Elizabeth Robin, of Texas.

Thomas Stringer, of Pennsylvania.

Homer Wardwell. Was lately a pupil, but his name does not appear now. I think he left the school on account of delicate health.

EDUCATED AT THE AMERICAN SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF,
HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT.

Julia Brace. Dead. Was remarkable, even among the deaf-blind, for the extreme delicacy of her sense of smell.

Albert E. Nolen, of Salem, Mass. A bright young fellow, quite well educated. Has a deaf brother.

EDUCATED AT THE COLORADO SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF AND
THE BLIND.

Ralph Woodin. Eight years old; has been in school two terms. A bright, wide-awake boy.

Lottie Sullivan. Twelve years old; has been in school four years. Progress slow, but sure; happy disposition.

EDUCATED AT THE MARYLAND SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND,
BALTIMORE, MARYLAND.

Francis L. Smith. Lost sight and hearing at twelve. Has graduated; works at cane-seating, etc.; supports himself and has laid up a little money.

Rebecca Young. Was in the Philadelphia School for the Blind before coming to Baltimore. I suppose she is dead now, as she was in a rapid decline a year ago.

EDUCATED AT THE PENNSYLVANIA INSTITUTION FOR THE
BLIND, PHILADELPHIA.

Nathaniel C. Garton. Born 1826; doubtless dead.

George Bailey. Probably dead.

Edw. K. Dietterich. Now in Workingmen's Home for the Blind, Philadelphia.

EDUCATED AT THE OHIO INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF AND
DUMB, COLUMBUS, OHIO.

Maud Safford. About 21. Was a pupil in the School for the Blind, at Columbus, when she lost sight at eight; was dismissed, and nothing done for her for 13 years. Has been a pupil of Miss Ada Buckles for about 19 months, and has made very fair progress. Understands manual spelling in her hand, spelling by lead letters, and is beginning to spell back with her fingers; was a savage when Miss Buckles took her.

Leslie Oren. About six or seven. Has been in school about 19 months, and has progressed wonderfully fast; a good, sweet little fellow.

OTHER CASES.

Daisy Billings. Was in the Kentucky School for the Deaf in 1892. Presumed to be dead, as she left the school on account of cancer.

Clarence Selby. Educated at Le Couteulx St. Mary's Institution for the Deaf, in Buffalo, N. Y. About 27; well educated, and somewhat of an author.

Helen A. Keller. About 20. Lost sight and hearing at 18 months. Taught privately by Miss Annie M. Sullivan,

and at the Perkins Institution, the Wright-Humason School, New York, the Cambridge School for Young Ladies, Cambridge, Mass., and by the Rev. Dr. Irons and Mr. Keith. An intellectual wonder and a marvel of sweetness and goodness.

Linnie Hagnewood, of Iowa. Taught by Miss Dora Donald at the Iowa School for the Blind, and at the South Dakota School for the Deaf. Now in the State Normal School, Cedar Falls, Iowa. Nearly the same age as Helen Keller, and lost senses at the same age. Intensely practical in her ways, one of the best girls living, and very sweet in disposition.

Beulah Templeton. School for the Blind, Raleigh, N. C. Was in school a year ago; left on account of delicate health; is expected back.

George Jones. Educated as blind at the Georgia School for the Blind; has lost sight since leaving. Is remarkable for his extreme delicacy of touch and quickness in learning a new print. In almshouse at Augusta, Georgia.

James Neal (colored), Knoxville, Tenn. Lost sight and hearing at 18. Was taught Braille reading and writing and palm writing by Miss Ellen M. Dyer, Vineland, N. J.; was taught manual alphabet at Tennessee School for the Deaf, and is learning cane-seating, etc., at the Tennessee School for the Blind.

Sallie Thornton. Lost sight and hearing at middle school age. Was taught at the Texas and Arkansas Schools for the Deaf.

Frederick Suhr. At the Indiana School for the Deaf. About 15; has not advanced far.

John L. Laubay, Duluth, Minn. Attended Minnesota School for the Deaf several years. Lost sight after leaving, by powder explosion.

Morrison Heady. Lost sight and hearing after acquiring a thorough education. From one source I learn that he is dead and from another that he is living. A most accomplished gentleman.

Wm. Dunham (colored). In the Florida School for the Deaf and Blind. Deaf, and sight not sufficient for any practical use.

Louis Daron. In the Louisiana School for the Deaf.

Wm. Heulin, Bay St. George, Newfoundland. Born 1872. Admitted to the Halifax School for the Deaf, 1882; left it and admitted to Halifax School for the Blind, 1892, and left in 1896. Has a deaf brother.

Sophia Augusta Hutson, Wilkes Barre, Pa. Born deaf and blind. Was taught by Miss Angie Fuller—herself blind. Now 43 years old.

August Boehme, Staster's Station, Ind. Lost sight and hearing by a hatchet falling on his head and subsequent sunstroke; was taught palm writing. Dead.

Mary Elizabeth Stetler, Pottstown, Pa. Born 1852. Admitted to School for the Deaf, Philadelphia, 1863; left 1869 with sight. Lost sight 1880. Has one brother and two sisters, all deaf. Parents heard and saw perfectly. Within a few months has learned to read "Braille" and "Moon" types.

Maggie Castor, Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind, Pittsburg. Thirteen years old; quite bright in appearance, but has not yet learned communication.

Nora Horton, Virginia School for the Deaf and Blind. Eighteen years old. Partially educated before losing sight at the above school; lost hearing at eight and sight at fifteen. A great reader and with a fair vocabulary. Has slight sight but not enough for any practical use. Residence, Newport News, Va.

UNTAUGHT DEAF-BLIND, OR CONDITION IN EDUCATION
UNKNOWN.

Eva Collins, Fayette, Mo. Lost senses between nine and ten. Instructed her family to communicate with her by finger writing on her cheek.

Jessie Stewart, Redmond, Ill.

A son—about six years old—of Mr. Tobe Hogsett, New Vienna, Ohio.

Cora Crocker. In almshouse, Pittsfield, Mass.; about 12 years old. Was admitted to the Perkins Institution, but was so scrofulous that she could not be retained.

Ruby Rice, Wyatt, Texas. About eight years old. A bright girl, further advanced in knitting and similar work than many blind of twice her age. It is expected that she will enter the Texas School for the Deaf next session.

Peyton Parramore, Lower Georgia. About 35 years old. Manages to do considerable work on a farm.

Minnie Kuhne, Delmar, Iowa. Born about 1865; lost senses at nine; now dead.

(A girl named *King* is reported from Beacon, Iowa. The postmaster there says there is no such person in the town, nor anybody named King.)

(*David John* has been reported as having been taught at the Staunton, Va., School, and as now dead; the school records do not contain any such name. I think there was such a man, but there has been some mistake about the details.)

CASES NOT FULLY DEAF AND BLIND.

Alvidle Mathilde Oleson, Minnesota School for the Blind. Can hear by the aid of an ear trumpet. Entirely blind.

Ada Youmans, Minnesota School for the Blind. Has not quite as much hearing as the above, but has enough to pursue her studies by. Very intelligent, and is well educated. Entirely blind.

Both the above have *variable* hearing, sometimes better and sometimes worse than the usual condition.

Joseph Sinkinson is said to be "deaf and almost blind." I cannot get the "almost" defined. Some accounts place him in California and some in Philadelphia.

Katie Parry, Philadelphia School for the Blind. Blind, but with enough hearing for educational purposes.

Wm. A. Miller, Los Angeles, California. Educated at Philadelphia School for the Blind. Ordinarily *very* deaf, but with variations from total deafness to fair hearing. An author; wrote an interesting book entitled "Eden." Good man of business, supports himself, and is accumulating some money.

Nora Neiderhouse, Staster's Station, Ind. First lost sight, recovered that, but lost hearing soon after. Is still very deficient in sight, seeing only through upper half of one eye. Is a niece of August Boehme noted above; probably there was a constitutional predisposition in both to the defects that developed.

Agnes O'Connor, Institution for the Deaf, Jacksonville, Ill. Entirely deaf, but has sight enough to study by. Bright, good girl.

Albert Jobus, Maryland School for Colored Deaf and Blind. Same as Agnes in hearing and sight.

Grace M. Copeland, Industrial Home for the Blind, Hartford, Conn. Deaf and "almost entirely blind."

Grace Sperow, Passadena, Cal. Fourteen years old, entirely blind, and with very little hearing. Was in the California School for the Deaf and the Blind for some time.

REPORTED CASES THAT ARE NEITHER DEAF NOR BLIND
OR ARE NOT PROPERLY CLASSED AS SUCH.

Adam Long, reported in a Pittsburg, Pa., newspaper as deaf and blind, and so recorded in the Volta Bureau, is only short-sighted and hard-of-hearing; goes about the city by himself.

Hazel Porter, mentioned in the paper of the Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf, is in the Pittsburg poor-house; is totally deaf and blind, but is also idiotic and a physical degenerate.

and consisted almost entirely of Frenchmen. The meeting was afterwards counted as the "First International Congress for the Improvement of the Condition of Deaf-Mutes."

At the Paris meeting it was voted that a second Congress should be held in 1880, and a Committee of Organization was appointed, composed of eleven Frenchmen and five foreigners, to make the necessary arrangements. In consequence, the "Second International Congress for the Improvement of the Condition of Deaf-Mutes," was held at Milan in 1880. Ample notice was given of this Congress, and persons were present from several foreign countries, but a very large majority of the members were French and Italian.

At the Milan Congress a Committee of Organization, composed of twenty-seven individuals from various countries, and having its headquarters at Paris, was appointed to arrange for another Congress three years later, and accordingly the "Third International Congress for the Improvement of the Condition of Deaf-Mutes" was held at Brussels in 1883. In these three congresses nearly all the members were persons connected with schools for the deaf, the subjects discussed related chiefly to methods of instruction and organization, and the gatherings were virtually, though not in name, Congresses of Instructors of the Deaf.

At the Brussels Congress it was voted that the next Congress should be held in 1887, and Frankfort-on-the-Main was designated as the place of meeting. A Committee of Organization was appointed, composed of seven members of French nationality and three from each of the other countries represented at Brussels, having its headquarters in Paris. In consequence, however, of disagreements among the members of the Committee thus constituted, the purpose of holding a Congress in 1887 was abandoned, the Committee dissolved, and no Inter-

national Congresses of the kind have been held in Europe since that of seventeen years ago at Brussels. An "International Congress of the Deaf," however, met at Paris in 1889, and another at Geneva in 1896.

An attempt to revive the International Congresses was made in connection with the Twelfth Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, held at the New York Institution in 1890, by calling it an International Congress and sending invitations all over the world; but as the foreigners who were invited to be present failed to appear, and the gathering in fact did not differ at all from our usual American Conventions, it can scarcely be included in the list of International Congresses.

The "World's Congress of Instructors of the Deaf," which met at Chicago in 1893, was also intended, as its name implies, to be international in character. Although it was not largely attended by representatives from abroad, the number of foreigners present was as great as at the "First International Congress" held at Paris in 1878, and the number who contributed papers was greater. In view of this fact and of the auspices under which the meeting was held as one of the congresses of the World's Congress Auxiliary of the World's Columbian Exhibition, we think the Chicago gathering, if future international congresses of instructors of the deaf are to be numbered in connection with the three European ones above named, may properly count as the Fourth. A "World's Congress of the Deaf" was also held at Chicago under the same auspices as the Congress of Instructors.

The "International Congress for the Study of Questions concerning the Education and Aid of Deaf-Mutes," announced in the *Annals* for September and November, 1899, and April, 1900, as called to meet in Paris this year, is as truly international in character as any of the congresses above named. It is called in the same way that the "First International Congress" of 1878, from

which the Milan and Brussels Congresses derived their authority, was called, viz., as. one of a series of International Congresses to be held under the auspices of the French Republic in connection with the Universal Exposition; it has the advantage over the Congress of 1878, however, of having been arranged for and announced throughout the world many months in advance of the time of meeting. The Committee of Organization was appointed in June, 1899, by Mr. Picard, Commissioner General of the Exposition. The Committee was composed of eminent Frenchmen, who were empowered to add to their number suitable representatives from other countries; President Gallaudet was thus appointed Representative of the Committee for America. As the Committee was originally constituted, Mr. Giraud, Director of the National Institution at Paris, and several of the instructors and other officers of that Institution were members, but for personal reasons which have not been publicly stated these gentlemen soon resigned. Dr. Ladreit de Lacharrière, an eminent physician, psychologist, and author, long physician-in-chief of the National Institution in Paris but recently retired from that office, was appointed President of the Committee. Arrangements were made for two sections of the Congress; one to be composed of hearing persons, the other of deaf persons, each to act independently of the other. Circulars inviting friends of the deaf to be present and take part in the proceedings were sent by the French government to all civilized countries.

The authority and importance of the Congress will of course depend upon the character of the persons who attend it and the nature of its proceedings. As a large majority of the members will probably, as at all the previous congresses, be from one or two countries only, and at any rate will be merely individuals attending at their own pleasure and not delegated representatives, any votes

that may be passed will not carry great weight. We hope, however, that this Congress will not attempt, as some previous congresses have done, to adopt resolutions by the mere force of the numbers present who may happen to favor certain views ; in fact, we hope there will be no voting at all on burning questions such as have disturbed the harmony of previous congresses, as methods of instruction at Milan and matters connected with politics and religion at Brussels. If resolutions are passed on such subjects they will have no binding force on any body ; they will be apt to mislead the general public who do not understand the unrepresentative character of the Congress ; while with those who do understand it they will bring the Congress into contempt. Let the Congress grant its members wide freedom of utterance, within the strict bounds of courtesy, and let it depend for its influence and importance upon the character of the persons who constitute its membership, and upon the intrinsic value of the arguments they present.

E. A. F.

JOHN H. BROWN.

As one of his associates in the Illinois Institution, and in behalf of the class of people to whom he consecrated the best part of his life, I claim the privilege of paying this slight tribute to the memory of Dr. John H. Brown.

Although we began our connection with the Illinois Institution at the same time and were together a good deal for several years, taking our meals at the same place, I knew no more of his past than if I were a total stranger, for he was innately modest, seldom speaking of himself. For the following facts I am indebted to his family, to Mr. S. T. Walker, formerly Superintendent of the Illinois Institution, and to Mr. R. Mathison, Superintendent of the Ontario Institution.

He was born at Darlington, Ontario, June 18, 1852, and received his education at the Tyrone Public School and the Bowmanville High School. He began teaching school before he was seventeen, at Haydon, and afterwards taught at Baker's, Darlington, and was drawing and writing master in the Port Hope Model School for two years. Then he became connected with the Ontario Business College in Belleville. Among the friends he made there was the late Dr. Palmer, Principal of the Ontario Institution. He visited the Institution a number of times and became interested in the deaf. A vacancy occurring, Dr. Palmer suggested that he enter the work. An arrangement was made with the Government of Ontario by which he was sent to Boston to qualify himself as a teacher of Visible Speech. He entered upon his duties in Belleville in 1879. After seven years of successful service there, he accepted a position in the Western Pennsylvania Institution, which he filled three years. He then spent three years at Jefferson College, Philadelphia, and graduated as Doctor of Medicine, practising the next two years at Dundee, Michigan. Owing to ill health he sold his practice and returned to teaching, Mr. Walker offering him a position in the Kansas Institution. He remained there until the fall of 1893, when Mr. Walker, being elected Superintendent of the Illinois Institution, asked him to accompany him thither. He proved a valuable acquisition. When the Institution changed superintendents in 1897 Dr. Gordon retained him.

His health began to fail last November, but he kept at his post until the end of December, hoping some change for the better would come, but in vain. He was then obliged, though still reluctant, to hand in his resignation. Dr. Gordon at first refused to accept it, suggesting to him that a temporary rest might be found to be sufficient, and offering to relieve him of some of his duties so as to make his work as light as possible. This offer Dr. Brown felt

that he could not accept, thinking that in such a course he could do justice neither to himself nor to those in his charge. His resignation was then finally accepted, and he left here on the 4th of January, returning to his home in Canada. From that time he seemed gradually to lose strength until on the 9th of April the peace of God fell upon him.

Dr. Brown was a man of solid attainments, being well read in history and literature and the natural sciences, and it was a pleasure to converse with him. His forte, however, was mathematics, and he did what few teachers can do—made it interesting to his classes. He loved his work and threw his whole soul into it. He went down to the level of his pupils and led them over the rough places to a higher plane. He was quick to apprehend their difficulties. His having been in charge of hearing classes was an advantage, for he brought with him many original methods. With these and others suggested by them he was able to show his classes how to overcome their difficulties. Being systematic in everything, he knew exactly where each child stood. He led his pupils gradually from the easy to the difficult, all the while bringing them over on solid ground. They followed him without reserve, for they loved him, confided in him, and admired him. He was easily approached, yet such was his dignity that no pupil ever thought of overstepping the bounds of propriety. Being systematic and painstaking, he expected his pupils to be the same. Lazy or slovenly work was never tolerated. Above all, his constant endeavor was to cultivate Christian manliness and womanliness in his pupils.

About three years ago he was tendered and accepted the position of head-master of the Institution at Belfast, Ireland, but later, his health failing, he had to decline the offer. He was possessed of rare executive ability and would have made an excellent head.

This little paragraph from the *Canadian Mute* will show how he was regarded at the Institution where he began his long and meritorious career :

Just as we go to press we learn that our old friend and co-laborer, Dr. John H. Brown, has at last passed into rest. He was an earnest, faithful, successful teacher in this Institution, and a true friend of the deaf, and it was a matter of great regret when his ill health compelled him to retire from active work while yet in the prime of life. He struggled long and heroically against bodily infirmities, but has been worsted in the struggle with the enemy to whom all must succumb. Mr. Brown was a man of the finest abilities and the most admirable character and enjoyed the sincere respect and admiration of a large circle of friends.

Mr. S. T. Walker, who was for many years a close friend of Dr. Brown and his superintendent in the Kansas Institution and part of the time in the Illinois Institution, gives the following testimony to his sterling qualities as a teacher, and to his character as an honorable and Christian man :

The late Dr. John H. Brown, mourned by many sincere friends, was an intimate associate and dear friend of the writer for several years. My first introduction to Dr. Brown was when I secured his services as head teacher in the Kansas Institution. This, I think, was about the year 1891. He immediately took a place in my heart as a friend, and his value as an instructor of the deaf was very soon appreciated by me. Our friendship grew into an intimacy seldom equaled between a superintendent and teacher. I felt towards him much as a brother, and his expressions to me, oft repeated, made me feel that the friendship was reciprocal. Dr. Brown had many friends, and perhaps I was no better friend than others, but I do not know that I have or ever had any closer friend than he was. His work in the schoolroom and outside the schoolroom among the pupils was not excelled. I do not think I ever saw a teacher who seemed to have the power (almost magnetic) of holding the attention and creating an intense interest in the subject equal to that of Dr. Brown. He always knew his subject thoroughly and was able to draw out from his pupils questions and answers concerning it, which resulted in a thorough knowledge of it on the part of the pupils. When I resigned the superintendency of the Kansas Institution to take charge of the Illinois Institution, I do not know who was the more pleased that he should accompany me to Jacksonville, he or I. My four years' work in Jacksonville with him as one of my teachers further cemented the friendship and augmented my regard for him as an instructor. That he labored beyond his strength is now well known to his friends; that he should have given up

some time ago is evident, but I believe it was his sincere interest and love for the work that kept him in the harness too long. Dr. Brown's training as a physician helped him in many ways to take up the work of deaf-mute education where he left it off when he entered the study of medicine. I know of no better nor more correct epitaph that might be placed on Dr. Brown's monument than this: "He was a superior teacher of the deaf."

The following extract from a letter of sympathy from Dr. Gordon to the family speaks for itself:

We all realized that he was in frail health when he left us, but he spoke hopefully and I am sure no one here dreamed that the end was so near. I can now only assure you of the affectionate regard in which the doctor was held by the very large circle of friends, including the officers, teachers, and pupils of this school and many citizens of this city who had come to know and love him.

The doctor was peculiarly successful as a teacher of the deaf, and speaking from a long, as well as wide-spread acquaintance among American teachers, I feel that he had but few equals and no superiors in the classroom. In our school he exercised a large and wholesome influence over the boys outside of the classroom, a matter of vast importance in which many men fail utterly. I need not assure you that we lament his death and that his memory will be cherished by his former pupils especially, and by his co-workers in this school.

Upright, honest, and strictly clean in life and thought, Dr. Brown acted his part to the full measure of his ability. To his family he has left the priceless legacy of a good name; to all who knew him a record of fidelity, probity, and noble purpose; and to the deaf, for whom he labored so long with zeal, assiduity, and success, an unswerving and courageous advocacy of what he believed to be for their best interests—an advocacy which they gratefully acknowledge.

EDWARD P. CLEARY,

Instructor in the Illinois Institution, Jacksonville, Ill.

NOTICES OF PUBLICATIONS.

One of the features of the Educational Exhibit of the United States in the Paris Exposition is a series of nineteen "Monographs on Education in the United States," prepared by competent authorities in various departments, and edited by Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, Professor of Philosophy and Education in Columbia University, New York. Monograph No. 15, entitled "EDUCATION OF DEFECTIVES," an octavo pamphlet of 51 pages, is contributed by Mr. EDWARD ELLIS ALLEN, Principal of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind. We regret the title of this monograph, for various reasons that have been stated in previous volumes of the *Annals*, and we also regret the grouping of the deaf and the blind with the feeble-minded; otherwise we have only praise for the work.

To speak only of the portion relating to the deaf, Mr. Allen gives a clear and interesting historical sketch of their education in this country, in which the only errors we notice are the change of the name of Laurent Clerc to "Laurent Clerk," and the statement that the school in New York was opened "under a teacher from Hartford." The Clerc family never anglicise their name either in pronunciation or spelling, and Mr. Stansbury, who took charge of the New York Institution at its opening, had not been a teacher in the Hartford school, but had been connected with its administrative department. It is also a mistake, in speaking of the equipment of the industrial departments of our schools, to say that "*every* institution for the instruction of the deaf publishes one or more papers." Many institutions publish papers, but many do not.

In describing the rival methods of deaf-mute instruction, Oral, Manual, and Combined, Mr. Allen has aimed at entire impartiality, and has succeeded in giving in brief space an excellent presentation of the advantages and disadvantages of the several methods as viewed by their advocates and critics respectively. He sums up this part of his subject as follows:

It cannot be denied that at times the controversy over methods has been bitter; to-day, however, it has been reduced to a generous rivalry, in which the champions of the various methods and systems are striving

with might and main to find out the best means of instructing the deaf and to pursue it. The majority of our schools do not limit their teaching to any one method, but are eclectic, calling themselves "combined system" schools. Satisfaction with the original uniformity of method would not have meant progress; and certainly the work for the deaf in this land of opportunity has progressed remarkably. No other country has so many deaf pupils under instruction as this. None has provided so generously for them, and there is none in which their educators are more alert to test new inventions and appliances that may bear upon the methods of instruction. And yet, unquestionably, the education of the deaf is still in its youth.

Several pages are given to the deaf-blind, especially Laura Bridgman and Helen Keller, and a bibliography which, as the author says, "constitutes but a small part of what might have been given," adds to the value of the monograph.

In 1892 the Volta Bureau published a handsome "Helen Keller Souvenir," describing the processes of that remarkable girl's education up to that time. It has now issued in even finer style a "HELEN KELLER SOUVENIR, No. 2" (1899, large quarto, pp. 66), giving the details of her education since 1892 up to the date of her passing the Harvard final examination for admission to Radcliffe College, in June, 1899. It includes a preface by the Hon. JOHN HITZ, Superintendent of the Bureau; papers by Dr. ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL and Miss ANNIE M. SULLIVAN on the methods of her early instruction; the article by Mr. ARTHUR GILMAN on her first year of college preparatory work which was published in the *Annals* for November, 1897; an account of her final preparatory work, by Mr. MERTON S. KEITH; a chronological statement of her studies by Miss KELLER herself, and, finally, a facsimile of the certificate of her admission to the Freshman Class in Radcliffe College.

While the entire contents of the Souvenir will be fresh and interesting to many persons, the only part of it that will be new to most of the readers of the *Annals* is that relating to the period of Miss Keller's education since the publication of Mr. Gilman's report written in the autumn of 1897. Of this period Mr. Keith, who has been her tutor since February, 1898, contributes an interesting sketch, giving in detail the course of study and methods of instruction pursued, pointing

out candidly the defects as well as the wonderful attainments of his pupil, and commenting here and there upon the relation of her educational experiences to the general theory and practice of pedagogy. While he agrees that her memory has thus far seemed her most remarkable gift, and, apparently, believes that in her early education it was relied upon too much to the neglect of other powers of her mind, he says that within the past year, under a course of training that aimed especially at the development of her powers of comparison and analysis and the habit of logical thinking, it is no longer her prodigious memory alone that astonishes him. "Calmness and patience in collecting, examining, and comparing all the obtainable facts before making impulsive inference, repeated reconsideration of facts and revision of judgment, sustained and logical thought combined with free flights of fancy—these are the powers and qualities of mind that most command my admiration. But with all her innate and acquired powers of mind she could not have obtained her present eminence had it not been for the moral, or quasi-moral, qualities of her soul. Ambition, undaunted courage, defiance of or glorying over obstacles, obstinate refusal to admit defeat, hope rising from incipient despair, self-respect and self-trust, patience and faith in planning or working or waiting for the consummation of effort—these constitute her armor of victory."

In view of the newspaper statements concerning Miss Keller's previous unacquaintance with the American Braille used in her final examination for admission to college, which were proved to be erroneous in a communication from Mr. Wade published in the *Annals* for November last, we turn with especial interest to her own and her tutor's authentic account of the matter. It appears that in all her preparation for college the only mode of examination to which she was accustomed was communication of the contents of examination papers by the manual alphabet. She had expected that the final examination for Radcliffe would be conducted in that manner, as the preliminary examination had been two years before, and she must have been not a little perturbed when, a few days before the examination took place, she was informed that instead of having the questions spelled into her hand in the usual way by a

familiar interpreter, they were to be reproduced for her in Braille by an entire stranger. She was acquainted with all kinds of literary Braille—English, American, and New York point; but the signs and symbols used in the Algebra questions were different from those which she had generally employed in doing her own written work, while in Geometry she had been accustomed to read the propositions in line print, or have them spelled into her hand. Though the new notation was fully explained to her before the examination took place, she was confused in her work by her lack of familiarity with it, and she must have felt a sad and bewildering sense of loneliness in the absence of the beloved interpreter-teacher upon whom she was wont to depend for everything. It seems reasonable to believe that if the questions had been given her in the familiar form of the manual alphabet, as had been done all through her years of preparation and at her former examination, she would have performed the work more rapidly and have passed the examination more brilliantly than she did. That she was able, under the trying circumstances in which she was placed, to pass them well enough to be admitted to Radcliffe College, and with the “credit in Advanced Latin” noted upon her certificate of admission, not only proves her high intellectual and scholarly attainments, but also confirms Mr. Keith’s estimate, quoted above, of her rare moral qualities.

Through the generosity of the Volta Bureau this Souvenir is to be placed in the libraries of all our schools for the deaf as well as all the important libraries of the world, and it is to be presented to every academic instructor of the deaf who is a member of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, or of Section Sixteen of the National Educational Association, as well as to prominent educators and scientists everywhere. The binding of the book, however, may delay the Bureau for several months in carrying this purpose into execution. Thus far only a limited number of advance copies have been sent out.

We have received the following Reports of Schools published in 1900 in addition to those previously acknowledged:

Liverpool (England), New York, Rhode Island, Royal Cambrian (Swansea, Wales); also the Report of the New York Church Mission to Deaf-Mutes published in 1899. The Report of the New York Institution is especially worthy of mention for its fulness of matter and the abundance of its illustrations. It includes, besides the usual reports, biographical sketches of the late Dr. Isaac Lewis Peet, Charles W. Van Tassell, and the Hon. Enoch Fancher, and is embellished with numerous pictures. The cover design is the unassisted work of a pupil, and Mr. Currier calls attention to it as illustrative of the practical value of the art training afforded by the Institution.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Ephpheta School.—The Rev. Paul Ponziglione, S. J., for the past five years director of the sodalities for the deaf connected with this school, died March 28, 1900, aged eighty-two. He had been accustomed to address the pupils every Sunday afternoon through an interpreter, and was much beloved by all connected with the school.

Gallaudet College.—On Presentation Day, May 2, 1900, caps and gowns were worn for the first time by the members of the faculty and the candidates for degrees. The following members of the Senior Class were presented as candidates for the degree of B. A.: Mr. Owen George Carrell, Mr. Littleton Alva Long, Mr. James William Sowell, Miss Cloa Georgetta Lamson, Miss Emma Matilda Prager, Miss Ethel Zoe Taylor, and Mr. Albertus Wornstaff; for the degree of B. L.: Miss Deborah Hoyt Marshall and Miss Gertrude Parker. The following Normal Fellows were presented as candidates for the degree of M. A.: Mr. Ashbel W. Dobyns, B. A., Mr. Laurance E. Milligan, B. A., Mr. Frank R. Wheeler, M. A., Miss Martha C. Bell, M. S., and Miss Adelaide H. Pybas, B. S. Two graduates of Gallaudet College, Miss May Martin, B. A., who for the past five years has been an instructor in the College and the Kendall School, and at the same time has pursued an extended course in pedagogy in the University of Chicago under the

instruction of Professor John Dewey, and Mr. Daniel P. B. A., who has taken post graduate courses in chemistry and modern languages in this College during the past year, were presented as candidates for the degree of M. A. The Hon. John B. Wight, Secretary of the Board of Directors, announced that the honorary degree of L. H. D. had been conferred by the Board upon the Rev. Thomas Gallaudet, D. D., of New York, in recognition of his long and devoted labors in behalf of the deaf. Orations and dissertations were delivered by some of the undergraduate candidates for degrees; a beautiful poem on Dante's Beatrice, by Miss Martin, was rendered orally and in signs by members of the Junior Class, and an excellent address to the graduating students was given by the Rev. and Hon. Dr. J. L. M. Curry.

Illinois Institution.—Miss Effie Johnston, of the corps of instruction, has resigned to accept a position in the Chicago Day Schools, where she takes the place of Miss Phoebe J. Wright, who retires temporarily on account of ill health. Mr. Charles P. Gillett, late of the Louisiana Institution, has been appointed to supply for the remainder of the year the vacancy occasioned by Miss Johnston's resignation.

Mississippi Institution.—On account of the crowded condition of the Institution, instruction in printing has been abandoned for the present, and the printing office is converted into a boys' dormitory; some of the classes are moved into the chapel and some of the schoolrooms are used as girls' dormitories. The publication of the *Voice* is necessarily suspended. New pupils will have to be refused admission until the legislature provides additional buildings.

New York Institution.—The Rev. Dr. Charles A. Stoddard, a member of the Board of Directors for thirty-one years, and one who has always been active in promoting the interests of the Institution and the welfare of the deaf generally, has been elected President of the Board in the place of the late Hon. Enoch Fancher.

New York Institution for Improved Instruction.—Mr. H. F. Mitchell has resigned the position of Superintendent, and Mr. E. A. Gruver, who has been associated with him as Principal, is promoted to the superintendency.

North Carolina (Morganton) School.—Mr. Zacharias W. Haynes, for thirty-two years a teacher of the deaf, died April 5, 1900, aged fifty-two, of pneumonia, following an attack of the grippe. Mr. Haynes was graduated at the North Carolina Institution at Raleigh in 1865, and was a teacher there until the establishment of the School at Morganton. In 1873 he was married to Miss Louise E. Bunker, a graduate of the same Institution. This union resulted in nine children, one of whom, a teacher in the Kentucky School, was recently married to Mr. Harvey P. Grow, of that School. Mr. Haynes was valued as a faithful and successful teacher, but still more as a man whose example and influence were a blessing to all with whom he was associated.

Oregon School.—Mr. George V. Bath, a promising young teacher who began work last autumn, has been compelled by failing health to resign his position and go to Southern California. His place is temporarily supplied by a member of the Senior Class.

Paris National Institution.—The Institution has met with a serious loss in the death of Mr. G. Rancurel, a teacher of marked ability and high promise. He was the author of a "Manual for the Synthetic Teaching of the First Elements of Common Language," noticed in the *Annals* of November last, and contributed some valuable articles to the *Revue Générale de l'Enseignement des Sourds-Muets*.

Rhode Island Institute.—Miss Katharine MacCrosson resigned her position as teacher on the first of March last to be married, and was succeeded by Mrs. Fanny C. Smith, a former teacher in the Institute who retired two years ago.

South Carolina Institution.—Mr. Robert P. Rogers, long foreman of the shoe shop in this Institution, died May 7, 1900, aged 82, of cancer of the throat. He was a native of Maine. He entered the American School at Hartford in 1832, and remained there as a pupil for four years. He married Miss Sarah Holmes, of Charleston, South Carolina, who survives him. Soon after the establishment of the South Carolina Institution in 1849 he was appointed to take charge of the shoe shop and retained the position uninterruptedly until a

short time before his death. He was a man of high intelligence, genial disposition, and strict integrity. One of his sons, Mr. David S. Rogers, is a teacher in the Kansas School, and a granddaughter, Miss Sarah A. Rogers, is a teacher in the South Carolina Institution.

Ulster (Ireland) Institution.—Mr. J. A. Tillinghast has resigned the principalship of this Institution in order to devote his whole time for a year or two to advanced sociological studies in Cornell University. We are glad to know that his withdrawal from active work in the profession, is intended to be only temporary.

Western Australian Institution.—A new building at Cottesloe Beach, erected at an expense of about \$9,000, was formally opened with appropriate ceremonies March 21, 1900. Among those who took part in the exercises were Mr. C. H. Wilkinson, Chairman of the Committee, Sir John Forrest, Premier of the Colony, the Bishop of Perth, and Mr. H. H. Witchell, Superintendent of the Institution.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The Conference of Superintendents and Principals.—Mr. J. H. Johnson, Principal of the Alabama Institute, announces that, as the estimate of the number of persons likely to attend the Conference of Superintendents and Principals this year falls below the requirements of the Passenger Associations, it will be impossible to obtain reduced rates. He hopes, however, that the attendance will not be diminished in consequence. Talladega is pleasantly situated in a hilly, healthy region, and the summer heat there is not excessive. Our southern friends promise us cooler weather than conventions and conferences held in more northern latitudes have sometimes found, and we are sure that the welcome will be of the heartiest. The first meeting will be held on Saturday, June 30, at 7.30 P. M. Members intending to present papers are requested to send the titles to Mr. Johnson as soon as possible.

The National Educational Association.—The meetings of Department Sixteen of the National Educational Association will be held at Charleston, South Carolina, July 10, 11, and 13, 1900. The Sub-Department for the Deaf will meet at 3 o'clock P. M. on Wednesday, July 11. The following programme has been arranged by Miss Mary McCowen, Vice-President for the Sub-Department:

1. President's Address, by Dr. Warring Wilkinson, Superintendent of the California Institution, Berkeley, California.

2. "The Growth and Development of Southern Schools for the Deaf," by Mr. J. R. Dobyns, Superintendent of the Mississippi Institution, Jackson, Mississippi.

Discussion by Mr. N. F. Walker, Superintendent of the South Carolina Institution, Cedar Spring, South Carolina.

3. "The State of the Case," by Miss Mary S. Garrett, Principal of the Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age, Philadelphia.

4. "Changes of Method in the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf," by Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, Superintendent of the Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia.

5. "Statistics of Speech Teaching in American Schools," by Mr. F. W. Booth, Editor of the *Association Review*.

Discussion by Dr. Z. F. Westervelt, Superintendent of the Western New York Institution, Rochester, New York.

6. "Day Schools for the Deaf the Logical Outcome of Educational Progress," by Miss Marion Foster Washburne, of the Chicago Institute, Chicago, Illinois.

Discussion by Mr. W. C. Martindale, City Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Michigan, and Mr. J. A. Foshay, City Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California.

The International Congress of 1900.—President Gallaudet, Representative of the Committee of Organization for America, has been informed by Dr. Ladreit de Lacharrière, President of the Committee, that the management of the *Compagnie Générale Transatlantique* offers a reduction of 10 per cent. from the regular rates of fare on their steamships to all American teachers visiting Paris for the purpose of attending congresses. To fifteen teachers of the deaf the Company will

"EPHPHATHA."

A soul passed o'er the river in the night
And stood, at dawn, before the gates of light.
No sound of earth, for many weary years,
Had pierced the silence of those close-sealed ears;
And she, who bowed beneath the chastening rod,
Nor murmured at the thorny path she trod,
Submissive still, but with expectant eyes,
Stood waiting at the gates of Paradise.

The archangel, with a shining face,
Flung wide the doors and stood within the space
He spoke; and, falling trembling at his feet,
She felt the thrill of tones divinely sweet.
"Dear soul," he said, "who bore with meek content
The earthly cross that our dear Master sent,
And in thy spirit's stillness not a word
Of worldly blasphemy or malice heard;
Pass through these gates of gold, and let thine ear
Be filled with the celestial music clear,
And thy dulled sense, with a new life imbued,
Be healed and quickened by the voice of God!"

MARY IMLAY TAYLOR.

Washington, D. C.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

A young lady, partially deaf, who has been educated orally in the Ohio Institution, having also completed the High School Course in the Manual Department, applies for a position as private teacher to a deaf child or as beginning teacher in an Institution. She has had experience as governess to a deaf and blind boy during vacation. References given. Address "Teacher," No. 768 Oak street, Columbus, Ohio.

An oral teacher of twelve years' experience in American schools for the deaf, and with excellent references, desires a position. Address "Oral," care of the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

WANTED.—By a lady who has been associated with the deaf from earliest childhood, and who has a thorough knowledge of the sign-language and methods of instructing the deaf, a position as teacher in a school. References. Address J. T. C., Box 16, Romney, West Virginia.

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TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES.

THE first permanent normal schools for the training of common-school teachers in the United States were founded in 1839-'40, but the establishment of training classes, as such, for those who wished to become teachers of the deaf did not come about until thirty-three years later. In fact, the last decade has seen the rise of the rapidly growing system of normal education in the profession of teaching the deaf.

John Braidwood, of England, who failed in his attempt to found a school in Virginia in 1812-'18, taught the Rev. John Kirkpatrick the art of teaching the deaf, and of the proficiency of the latter in the school he conducted at Manchester, Virginia, 1818-'19, there is incontrovertible testimony.

The American School at Hartford was, of course, the Mecca for many of the early teachers of the deaf. The Rev. Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, its founder and first principal, was an enthusiastic believer in the value of a normal education for those who wished to teach the hearing as well as for those who desired to instruct the deaf. Said Dr. Harvey P. Peet in the *Annals* in 1852:

It should not be forgotten that to Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet we owe the idea of normal schools, one of the greatest improvements of the age. His school for the deaf was, in fact, to some extent, a normal school, in which teachers were trained for his own and other institutions; and felicitous and comprehensive in all his views, he soon perceived that the special training of teachers in view of their profession, so necessary in schools for the deaf, would be hardly less advantageous in the case of teachers of other schools.

The Hon. Henry Barnard, LL. D., then Superintendent of Schools in Connecticut, afterwards the first United States Commissioner of Education, bears the following testimony:*

While the Rev. Dr. Gallaudet acknowledged the fact of mutual instruction in the family and in life, which lies at the foundation of Bell's and Lancaster's systems of monitorial instruction, as an educational principle of universal application in schools, and always advocated and practiced the employment of older children in the family and of the older and more advanced pupils in the school in the work of instructing the younger and least advanced, he never countenanced for a moment the idea, which swept over our country from 1820 to 1830, that monitors, young and inexperienced in instruction and life, could ever supply the place, in schools, of professionally trained teachers of mature age, thorough mental discipline, and high moral character. * * *

Although not strictly the first to present to the people of Connecticut and New England the necessity of providing special institutions for the professional training of young men and young women for the office of teaching, his "Letters of a Father," published in the *Connecticut Observer* in 1825, and afterward circulated in a pamphlet, were among the earliest and most effective publications on the subject. * * * He fixed for the first time the attention of educators and, to some extent, of the public, on the source of all radical and extensive improvement of them and all schools in the professional training of teachers. * * * He took part in the course of instruction of the first Normal Class or Teachers' Institute held in this country in 1839, and again in a similar Institute in 1840. He appeared before the Joint Committee of Education in the General Assembly on several occasions when appropriations for a normal school were asked for. He was one of the lecturers in the Teachers' Convention held in Hartford in 1846, and had the gratification of welcoming to the State Normal School at New Britain in 1850 the first class of pupil teachers and of taking part in their instruction. He was to have delivered a public address before one of the literary societies in that institution, called, in gratitude for his early and constant

*"Tribute to Gallaudet," Hartford, 1854, pp. 28-50, *passim*.

advocacy of normal schools, after his name, at the first anniversary of the State Normal School in September, 1851. * * *

The greatest service rendered by him as an educator and teacher—his highest claim to the gratitude of all who are laboring to advance the cause of education in any grade or class of schools—is to be found in his practical acknowledgement and able advocacy of the great fundamental truths of the necessity of special training, even for minds of the highest order, as a prerequisite of success in the art of teaching. In view of this truth he traversed the ocean to make himself practically acquainted with the principles and art of instructing the deaf and dumb; to this end he became a normal pupil under the great normal teacher, Sicard, in the great normal school of deaf-mute instruction in Paris. And, still distrusting his own attainments, he thought himself peculiarly fortunate in bringing back with him to this country a teacher of still larger experience than himself, and of an already acquired reputation, and thus making the American Asylum the first normal school of deaf-mute instruction on this continent. And, beyond this, he was ever the earnest advocate for training, under able master workmen in the business of education, all who aspired to teach the young in any grade of schools.

For many years every new teacher who entered the Hartford School had to take a course of instruction in the sign-language from Mr. Laurent Clerc and pay him fifty dollars therefor. Mr. Clerc was lent to the Philadelphia Institution for six months in order to have the sign-language properly introduced there. The following teachers had their first experience in the Hartford School and afterwards taught in other schools: F. A. Spofford, F. A. P. Barnard, Samuel Porter, R. S. Storrs, O. D. Cooke, Melville Ballard, Elizabeth V. Beers, DeWitt Tousley, A. A. Trask, Ada R. King, and Hannah C. Wells. Those who became principals in other schools were Lewis Weld, Harvey P. Peet (New York), D. E. Bartlett (private school in New York), Jos. D. Tyler (Virginia), Collins Stone, and E. M. Gallaudet (Columbia Institution). Mr. Weld went from Hartford to the principalship of the Pennsylvania Institution, but returned to Hartford after eight years to take the same office there. Collins Stone returned from the superintendency of the Ohio Institution to the principalship of the Hartford

School. Mr. J. A. Jacobs, Superintendent of the Kentucky School, went to Hartford to be trained by Mr. Clerc. The Rev. Job Turner was not a teacher at Hartford but received his training there, and went from there to the Virginia Institution. All of the principals of the Hartford School who followed the Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet were trained in that school.

The list of teachers who gained their first experience at the New York Institution, and who afterwards went to other schools as principals, is long and illustrious. They were John H. Gazley (Mississippi School), J. Addison Cary (Ohio School), B. M. Fay (Michigan School), Oran W. Morris (Tennessee School), Jacob Van Nostrand (Texas School), Egbert L. Bangs (Michigan School), Warring Wilkinson (California School), E. A. Fay (Vice-President of Gallaudet College), Alphonso Johnson (Central New York Institution), Weston Jenkins (New Jersey School), Francis D. Clarke (Arkansas and Michigan Schools), Z. F. Westervelt (Western New York Institution), E. B. Nelson (Central New York Institution), John H. Geary (Cleveland Day School), Mrs. C. E. Lounsbury (private school), H. H. Hollister (West Virginia School), and F. A. Rising (New York Institution for Improved Instruction). Isaac Lewis Peet and Enoch Henry Currier, principals of the New York Institution, were indebted to that school for their preparation. Nineteen principals, one college vice-president, four college professors, and two college presidents were formerly teachers in the New York Institution.

The Ohio School has also a very honorable record in this respect. Says the Maryland *Bulletin* on this point:

In the fall of 1863, Mr. Geo. L. Weed was Superintendent of the Ohio School. He had previously served seven years as teacher and took the place of Rev. Collins Stone, who was called to the head of the Hartford School. There were eight teachers, four of them hearing men, J. M. Francis, Benjamin Talbot, G. O. Fay, and E. C. Stone. In October, Mr. Talbot was called to be head of the school and the vacancy was

filled by C. W. Ely. Mr. R. A. Kinney had, a year or two before, become the Superintendent of the Minnesota School. Mr. Francis became Superintendent of the California School, Dr. Fay of the Ohio School, Mr. E. C. Stone of the Wisconsin and subsequently of the Hartford School, Mr. Ely of the Maryland School, and three other teachers who came in under Mr. Weed became superintendents of other schools: Mr. F. A. Rising, of the Institution for Improved Instruction, New York City, E. P. Caruthers, of the Arkansas, and Charles S. Perry, of the Ohio School. Mr. Weed, after his retirement from the Ohio School, became Superintendent of the Wisconsin School. All of these Superintendents received their training in Ohio. Still another, H. H. Hollister, who had been a teacher in the New York Institution, taught under Dr. Fay, and was from there called to be head of the West Virginia School. Here were eleven Ohio teachers who became superintendents of State institutions and all but one during the period from 1860 to 1870.

During this same period Mr. Robert Patterson and Mr. R. P. McGregor were pupils. The former is now head of the intellectual department of the Ohio School, and the latter was the founder and first principal of the Cincinnati Day School.

Dr. Z. F. Westervelt, Superintendent of the Rochester, New York, School, was at this time in the Ohio Institution family, his mother being matron, and there gained his first knowledge of the deaf.

To go further back in the history of the Ohio School we find that William Willard, a deaf Ohio teacher, founded the Indiana School, and that James S. Brown and Dr. Thomas McIntire, his immediate successors, were Ohio teachers. Mr. Brown later became Superintendent of the Louisiana School. Dr. McIntire had, previous to going to Indiana, been Superintendent of the Tennessee School, and late in life was also Principal of the Michigan and Western Pennsylvania Schools.

Another Ohio teacher, Thomas Officer, was Superintendent of the Illinois School before Dr. Gillett. Still another, John S. Officer, became Superintendent of the Wisconsin School, and yet another, Lewis H. Jenkins, was Superintendent of the Wisconsin and Kansas Schools.

To recapitulate, eighteen State schools for the deaf have been supplied with superintendents from the teachers trained in the Ohio School.

Park Terrell, a former Ohio teacher, was afterwards Principal of the Florida Institute. H. S. Gillet, of the Ohio School, was later appointed Superintendent of the Tennessee School. A. U. Downing, a former Principal of the Toledo Day School, and Clayton Wentz, now Superintendent of the Oregon School, were once teachers in the Ohio School. This brings the total up to twenty-three schools for the deaf which have been supplied with

superintendents or principals from teachers who were trained wholly or in part in the Ohio School.

The number of ex-teachers of the Iowa School who have become superintendents or principals is worthy of mention. The list is as follows : J. A. Gillespie, ex-Superintendent of the Nebraska School ; James Simpson, Superintendent of the South Dakota School ; F. W. Booth, ex-Principal of the Manual Department of the Pennsylvania Institution ; John W. Blattner, Principal of the Texas School ; D. W. McDermid, Principal of the Manitoba School ; G. L. Wyckoff, ex-Principal of the Iowa School ; E. M. Goodwin, Superintendent of the North Carolina School ; Miss Katherine King, ex-Principal of the Cleveland School, and Joseph H. Ijams, afterwards Superintendent of the Tennessee School. Benjamin Talbot, the second Superintendent of the Iowa School, was afterwards acting Superintendent of the Ohio School. Miss E. J. Israel, an ex-Iowa teacher, was later head teacher in the Kansas School, and H. C. Hammond, the fifth Superintendent of the Iowa School, is now at the head of the Kansas School.

The first normal school for teachers of the deaf was opened at Boston in 1872 by Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, and continued under his supervision until 1879. Its purpose was to give "practical instruction in Visible Speech to philologists, missionaries, common school teachers, instructors of the deaf, teachers of the blind, deaf-mutes, parents of deaf or stammering children, and stenographers." In 1873 the school was moved from West Newton street to Boston University, where Mr. Bell had been appointed professor of oratory. The private school for deaf children which was in connection with the normal school was removed to Salem, Massachusetts. The terms for training teachers of the deaf were at first \$500 for the complete course, or for a shorter course \$50 per week, or \$150 per month. In 1875 a

pamphlet was issued announcing terms of \$25 for a course of twenty-four lessons to those who intended to become teachers of the deaf. The school was called the School of Vocal Physiology. Instruction was given in the mechanism of speech, in elocution, and in the use of the Visible Speech symbols. The students were expected to give instruction in articulation to the deaf connected with the school. In 1876-'77, the board of instruction consisted of Professor A. Melville Bell, Professor A. Graham Bell, and Professor L. Alonzo Butterfield, assisted by graduates of the school. In 1875, there were three graduates, in 1876, ten, and in 1877, twelve. The subjects studied in 1876-'77 were acoustics, vocal physiology, Bell's physiological alphabet, methods of teaching articulation to the deaf, methods of correcting defects of speech, methods of correcting dialectic and foreign peculiarities of utterance and of teaching the sounds of foreign languages, culture of the speaking voice, including methods of teaching applicable to the deaf, "lip-reading," or the art of understanding speech by watching the mouth, including practical methods of teaching the art to those who are deaf, methods in use of educating the deaf, dactylology, and practical directions how to educate a deaf child at home. The text-books used were "Visible Speech, the Science of Universal Alphabetics," and "Line-Writing and Elliptical Steno-Phonography upon the Basis of Visible Speech." The requirement for admission to the normal course was a good English education, and the special desirability was indicated by a correct ear, a practical knowledge of teaching, and a pleasant and attractive bearing toward children. The tuition fee was \$100 for the course. Regular examinations were held, and those who passed received a diploma of graduation from the school.

The school was discontinued in 1880. In 1882 Mr. L. Alonzo Butterfield, an instructor in the school, advertised

a Summer School of Visible Speech for the summer of that year for teachers of the deaf, to be held at some summer resort.

The Summer School of Oral Training for Teachers of the Deaf, established in 1881 by Miss Emma Garrett at Scranton, Pa., was the first permanent normal school as well as the first summer training school for teachers of the deaf in the United States. In the *Annals*, vol. xxvii, pp. 106-109, Miss Garrett offers to give a portion of her time to training a limited number of persons for the work of teaching the deaf to speak. She planned to give instruction in Visible Speech and spoke of the importance of visiting the best oral schools to see the practical application of theories, also of the reading of works on the voice, and of the value of a knowledge of respiration, vocal development, and the anatomy of the vocal organs, studied with models and works on anatomy or at dissections, and the use of the laryngoscope to study the mechanism of the voice. Miss Emma Garrett was a graduate of the School of Vocal Physiology at Boston. In the article referred to Miss Garrett urged all persons who felt qualified and who had the time to train teachers in their different localities. In 1891, Miss Garrett reported thirty of her normal graduates teaching in schools and private families in the United States, several of them being principals of oral schools. Eight students were enrolled for the summer session in 1891.

The Home for Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age was opened by Miss Emma Garrett in Philadelphia in 1892. After her death in 1893, her sister, Miss Mary Garrett, became principal, and has charge of the normal training which is a feature of this school. No men have been admitted to the normal course. The requirements for admission are a good English education and a love of children. Some college graduates have been trained. The charge is \$75 a year, in advance.

The course at present pursued is training in the mechanism of speech, the development of articulate speech in the deaf, teaching language to the deaf, the principles of education, how to teach speech-reading to persons who have lost hearing after acquiring speech, and to correct defective articulation and stammering. Students are also required to observe at the Home and to do some practice work. Six persons took the training last year, five successfully. Miss Garrett has as many applications as she can fill. We understand the Summer Normal School has been discontinued. Speaking of summer schools, it is interesting to note that the Principal and four lady teachers of the Texas School last summer attended a session of the normal department connected with the Pennsylvania Oral School for the Deaf.

The second permanent normal school was that of the Wisconsin Phonological Institute, in Milwaukee, which really entered on the work in 1883, the public day school for deaf children serving as a school for practice. Financial aid was given to needy normal students by using the funds provided by a Ladies' Aid Society, composed of German mothers, the members of which contributed four dollars each per year. Tuition has been free from the beginning. Up to 1893 twenty-two teachers had been trained. Milwaukee furnished nine students; Chicago, one; Iowa, one; Boston, one; Portland, Maine, one; New York State, two; New York City, one; West Virginia, one; Canada, one, and Wisconsin, outside of Milwaukee, four. Several college graduates have taken the course, and men as well as women may enter. The present requirements of students entering the normal department of the Milwaukee School for the Deaf are as follows:

Applicants entering the normal department shall be required to hold a Milwaukee assistant teacher's certificate, or its equivalent, or shall have completed one year of the advanced course of a State normal school.

After having attended the School for the Deaf for observation and practice work one year, members of the normal class shall be examined in anatomy and physiology of the human voice and ear, science of the elements of speech, history of deaf education, and special pedagogy for the deaf; also psychology and science of education at the State normal school.

A standing of not less than 65 per cent. in each study and a general average of not less than 75 per cent. shall be required.

The Superintendent of Schools shall certify the standings of the normal students so examined to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction for the issuance of certificates of teachers of the schools for the deaf as by law provided.

The membership of the normal class shall be determined by the Superintendent and the Principal of the School. Applicants who wish to enter are requested to fill out an application, stating age, condition of health, education, and experience in teaching. Recommendations and a picture of the applicant are asked for. There were five young women in the class last year. The Principal is Miss Frances Wettstein, School for the Deaf, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

In 1886, Dr. Bell's school at Washington, D. C., opened with six normal students, but it was closed in a short time, as Dr. Bell was unable to give it the personal attention which he desired.

Miss Mary B. C. Brown, Principal of the Pennsylvania Oral School for the Deaf, has continued Miss Garrett's work at that school, and has trained one or two teachers each year since 1891. She trains for her own school alone, and last year had three students. No board is paid by the normal students, services rendered being considered equivalent. The tuition is \$75, payable half at the beginning and half at the completion of the course. Students must be high-school graduates at least, and normal-school graduates are preferred. No men have been trained.

For the last six or seven years a regular normal class for primary teachers has been maintained at the Michigan School. All the younger teachers are expected to attend it and also those young ladies who are in training as teachers. Mr. Clarke, the Superintendent, says that they

have not had and they do not desire more of these than they can have some hope of employing. Three young women took the training last year.

Miss Laura De L. Richards, Principal of the Rhode Island School, has always trained teachers since the very first of her teaching, and since her connection with the Providence School has had two, and sometimes more, students taking training with her, but she has never termed it a "Normal Class." Last year she had four students. The candidates are all required to be high-school graduates at least, and some college graduates have been trained. There is no "Normal Department," so-called, in the Rhode Island School.

The normal class of four students in the Cleveland School last year was not connected with the School but was a private affair of the Principal, Miss Katherine King.

The North Carolina School for the Deaf was opened at Morganton in 1894, and the training of two young women who had begun the course in Raleigh was finished at Morganton, and two others admitted the same year. Since then seven have been admitted and trained, and one student began the course the first of December, 1899. The charges have been \$100 for the year which includes board, room, laundry, and physician's attention. Tuition is free. But one young woman has been admitted from another State. Superintendent Goodwin has many applications on file from those who wish to take training from five different States. It is possible that there will be a class of five or six normal students this year. Miss Hurd has charge of the training in speech.

Miss Mary McCowen, of the McCowen Oral School in Chicago, trains teachers for kindergarten work with the deaf.

Although for each of the past four years it has so happened that one or more teachers have been in train-

ing at the Mystic (Connecticut) Oral School, with one exception they have remained there, and so it has amounted to training the School's own teachers. It is not intended to make a practice of training teachers in this School.

For a number of years the Indiana School for the Deaf has worked in connection with the Indianapolis Kindergarten and Primary Normal Training School, whereby the latter school details three of its young lady students for work in the Kindergarten Department of the Indiana School. These young ladies are given classes and perform all the duties of a regular teacher, subject to all the rules and regulations of the school. They are expected to remain at the institution for two years, the first year without pay, the second with a small "honorarium." They come to the institution each morning at eight o'clock, remain until one, and receive their dinners. In the afternoon they go to their own school. They are not given either board or lodging at the institution, but are altogether at their own expense.

The training of teachers is not recognized as a part of the work of the Missouri School for the Deaf. All that has been attempted along that line has been the individual work of the late principal of the oral department, Miss Anna C. Allen. There has been a normal class of this order for the last three years. The class last year numbered four students. The course of instruction includes drill in language teaching according to the plan pursued in the Missouri School—generally spoken of as the McKee Method—the general principles of pedagogy, and a study of the methods of teaching speech and speech-reading. No one would be accepted as a normal student who had not an educational equipment at least equal to that of a high-school graduate. As a matter of fact, of the fourteen students of the past three years all except three have registered as college graduates, claiming the degree of Bachelor of Arts.

The Mississippi School at Jackson, J. R. Dobyns, M. A., Superintendent, has a normal student each year if possible. In an editorial on the qualifications for teachers, the *Voice* says :

There is a mistaken notion in the minds of many people that any person can teach the deaf. In consequence of this mistaken notion, Superintendent Dobyns has a great many applications from persons knowing nothing whatever about the deaf, who want to enter upon that duty at once. He also has frequent applications from those who want to prepare themselves for this teaching. As the nominating of teachers as well as officers is entirely in the hands of the superintendent, he has prepared the following, which is printed in convenient form so that all applicants can see at a glance what is required. The superintendent proposes to stand by these qualifications before appointing any one as a teacher or a normal student, and insist that applicants shall possess at least one of them.

Qualifications for the position of teacher.

- 1st. Several years' successful teaching in a school for the deaf.
- 2d. Several years' successful teaching in hearing schools, coupled with normal training in teaching the deaf.
- 3d. Several years' experience with the deaf, coupled with a diploma or certificate of graduation from a first-class college or high school or an institution for the deaf.

Qualifications for normal students.

- 1st. Several years' successful teaching in hearing schools.
- 2d. A diploma or certificate of graduation from a first-class college or high school.

Normal students get board and tuition free with five dollars per month for nine months. They are trained in speech teaching especially. No objection is made if they wish to "pick up" signs and the manual alphabet. They are required to teach part of each day and to take part in the various duties that will fit them for the care and training of the deaf. No male normal students have been admitted.

A normal class existed at the Portland School for a few years. In the school year 1895-'96, two students were trained.

At the Albany Home School there were training classes in 1893, 1894, and 1895, in charge of the Principal, Miss Anna M. Black.

Although the Clarke School for the Deaf at North-

ampton had trained its own teachers for many years previous to 1892, it was not until that year that other teachers were trained than those required for work in its own classes. This action was taken in response to a request embodied in the following resolutions passed by the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf at its meeting in the summer of 1892 :

Whereas statistics show that the training schools for teachers of the deaf at present existing in America do not supply a sufficient number of trained teachers of articulation to meet the demand ; and,

Whereas the Clarke Institution of Northampton, Mass., has had for years a training class for the teachers of its own school :

Be it resolved, That the Trustees of the Clarke Institution be requested to enlarge their training class so as to supply teachers for other schools : and,

Resolved, That the Officers of this Association transmit these resolutions to the Trustees of the Clarke Institution.

This request, after some hesitation, was acceded to by the authorities of the Clarke School, and during the next three years up to 1895, twenty young women and two young men pursued the course of study and practice in the normal class and were awarded its diploma.

The work of the normal class continues throughout the ten months of the school year and consists of courses of study and reading, of observation of school-room work, and of teaching under direction. The subjects studied are: Preparatory sense training, mental development and methods of language teaching, formation and development of elementary English sounds (including Visible Speech), anatomy and physiology of the vocal organs, voice training, adaptation of methods of teaching arithmetic, geography, history, etc., and the history of the education of the deaf. Three lectures or lessons are given to the class each week.

Student teachers spend two hours each day in observing the work of an experienced teacher and three hours per day in teaching under direction. Those boarding in

the school have also an hour's work with a class on Sunday.

An entrance examination in the common English branches is required. This examination may be taken at the school any time before the middle of June. Applicants residing at a distance may have the papers sent to a local superintendent of schools or other responsible person, under whose supervision the examination may be written, and by whom papers may be returned to the school authorities. An applicant holding a degree from a college may be admitted without examination.

Tuition is \$50 for the 40 weeks, payable at the middle of the year. Four young ladies can be given board in the school family, and in that case an additional charge of \$50 each is made.

The school year opens on the third Tuesday of September. A week's recess in school work is taken at the middle of the year. It is important that teachers in training should be present during the first days of the year as the work with new pupils can be observed only at that time.

No men have been trained since 1894. Men have never been admitted to the school as members of the school family, and that, of course, has made it more expensive. In general, the normal graduates have been more than high-school graduates; a number have been college graduates. A certificate of graduation, except a college diploma, exempts no teacher in training from the entrance examination in common English, and, indeed, until the last year or two, even college graduates have passed that examination. It has never been the wish of the school authorities to increase the number of the normal class; indeed, having done so one year, it seemed unwise. In a school organized as the Clarke School is, any considerable number of training teachers cannot be given the practice which it is well for them to have with-

out loss to the pupils of the school. The number of applicants is very large, during the last few years entirely out of proportion to the possibilities of admittance.

As early as 1867 Dr. Edward M. Gallaudet, in the Tenth Report of the Columbia Institution, commended to the Board of Directors "the desirableness of making arrangements for the reception of hearing young men and women into the Institution who may wish to fit themselves for deaf-mute instruction." Nearly a quarter of a century later, in 1891, the normal department of Gallaudet College became a reality. Since the opening of the course nine classes have been graduated containing forty-eight students, an average of about five per year. Thirty-six college graduates, known as normal fellows, have taken the course, and twelve who were not college graduates, known as normal students.

The Board of Directors authorizes six fellowships at the most, and appropriates yearly two hundred and fifty dollars for each fellow besides furnishing board, room, laundry, and tuition. The money for the fellowships is not appropriated from the United States Treasury. The normal students receive only tuition free.

The number of normal students is limited by the facilities for observation work and the desire to turn out good teachers. There are many more applications for the admission of normal students than can be accepted. The number of women applicants has increased of late.

The Master's degree is conferred on those graduates of the normal department who have previously taken the Bachelor's degree.

Normal students receive instruction in the language of signs, the origin and meaning of signs are explained, and the students are required to use them in telling stories, in giving lectures, and in conducting chapel exercises. The use of manual spelling is also taught. Lectures are given on acoustics and the general laws of sound; also on the

formation, use, and defects of the vocal organs. The mechanism of the ear is explained and the causes of deafness inquired into. These lectures are illustrated by means of charts, casts, and experiments, and are supplemented by reading. Daily instruction is given in the first term in the formation and production of the elements of speech. This is accompanied by practical illustrations and the use of casts and charts. A thorough course in Visible Speech is given. Daily class-room observation and practice is required for the first two terms. Each student carries on the training in speech and speech-reading of several of the college students throughout the year with the advice of the articulation teachers. Lectures on pedagogy, auricular training, and number work are given. Special work in language teaching for all grades is given to the class under the supervision of the teachers of the Kendall School. The use of action work, toys, pictures, stories, journals, current events, etc., in teaching language, is explained. Students prepare lessons in language, geography, and American history, and give them to the classes under the direction of the teachers. The five-slate system of teaching language is studied. Reading is required on the history of the education of the deaf. Students are encouraged to make use of the Baker Library, which contains the works of Bonet, De l'Épée, Amman, Holder, Sicard, Bulwer, Heinicke, and many others who have made their names famous in connection with the education of the deaf. A thesis is required at the end of each term. The text-books used are Denison's Manual Alphabet in the Public Schools, Arnold's Teachers' Manual, Dr. Hewson's articles on the throat and ear, Bell's Visible Speech in twelve lessons, Bell's Lectures on Phonetics, Joseph Payne's Lectures on the Science and Art of Pedagogy, W. H. Payne's History of Pedagogy, Page on Teaching, F. D. Clarke's First Year Work, etc., Miss Sweet's First Lessons in English, and

the *American Annals of the Deaf*. Lectures are given from time to time by members of the College Faculty on various topics connected with the welfare of the deaf. The students' reading-room, the students' literary society, and the College library are open to the members of the normal class.

Although no normal course, so-called, has existed for the undergraduates of Gallaudet College, they have had considerable practice in teaching and lecturing in the Kendall School, and the very large proportion of graduates—over half, or fifty-four per cent. of the total number—who have engaged in teaching, should be mentioned in this connection.

To recapitulate, the following institutions have a normal department which is officially recognized as a part of the school: the Columbia Institution, Clarke School, Miss Garrett's Home for Training in Speech, Mississippi School, Milwaukee Day School, McCowen Training School, North Carolina (Morganton) School, and the kindergarten training at the Indiana School. Those which have an unofficial normal class are the Missouri School, and, for the past year, the Cleveland Day School. Those which have trained their own teachers are the Mystic Oral School, Michigan School, Scranton Oral School, Rhode Island School, and the Le Couteulx St. Mary's Institution at Buffalo. Doubtless there are other schools which train their new instructors, but for the most part the remaining schools depend upon the normal graduates of the schools named for new teachers. The Columbia Institution is the only one which trains normal students in all methods of instructing the deaf.

A plan of training teachers, which was successfully tried in the Kentucky School for a dozen years or more previous to 1891, was that of taking two or three young women who it was judged would make successful teachers and who were willing to serve without pay.

They were given the privilege of becoming members of the household for the purpose of preparing themselves for teaching. The advantages of such training were given as follows: "Persons so trained are enabled to obtain a practical experience with just such children as they are fitting themselves to teach. Second, they receive instruction and suggestions from each experienced teacher in the school. Third, they learn more about the deaf in one year than they could in any other way in three. Fourth, they are trained to harmonize with the methods of the school in which they are to labor. Fifth, the learner is sure of a position if worthy of it, and makes greater efforts to fit himself than if it were uncertain whether he would ever have an opportunity to make practical use of his pedagogical knowledge." On the other hand it was said that the science and fundamental principles of teaching would, no doubt, be better taught in a normal school, even though the opportunity for practical experience would not be so great.

At the Third Conference of Principals, held at the Philadelphia School in 1876, James H. Logan, a teacher and a graduate of Gallaudet College, read a paper on the subject, "The Necessity of a Training School for Teachers of the Deaf," which contained a suggestion that a "Professorship of the Theory and Practice of Teaching Deaf-Mutes" be established, preferably, at the Hartford School. The expense was to be met by endowment made for the purpose by private effort or by the annual contribution of a proportionate share of the amount needed by each institution in the United States, and perhaps Canada. The statement was made that no normal school existed at that time for teachers of the deaf, and the imperative need of proper training was forcibly pointed out. Mr. Logan spoke of the possible necessity of making provision for the board and lodging of those who took the training, and also of the benefit that the deaf, as well as the hearing,

would derive from such a course. While his suggestion in regard to the professorship at Hartford was not carried out, yet it doubtless had much to do with the later development of normal education for instructors of the deaf.

In the discussion of this paper, Dr. G. O. Fay, who was at that time Superintendent of the Ohio School, said it had been found practicable at the Ohio Institution to give new teachers practical normal training without especial provision therefor. According to the system of rotation followed in that school at the time, one-third of the classes were in operation during the time when any one teacher was out of school. There was thus a great opportunity to study the best models two or three hours each day, if the new teacher had the time to give. This opportunity steadily improved for a year or longer, at the option of the teacher, added to the usual instruction which the principal gave to new teachers, was found to answer tolerably well all the uses of a normal course.

In 1878 Mr. H. A. Hammond, then of the Indiana School, wrote :

Each institution may have a normal school on a small scale within its own walls by placing a new teacher in the position of assistant to one of successful experience. In this way, a training in signs, discipline, and judicious use of time—in short, the minutiae of the school-room—can be obtained, which shall be doubly valuable and rapid because combining theory with practice, both at their best, and the introduction to full responsibility can be made when the candidate becomes fitted for it.

At the Eleventh Convention, held at Berkeley, California, in 1886, a normal department was proposed, organized, and managed by Mr. C. W. Ely, Principal of the Maryland School. "Here, for the first time," says Dr. Job Williams in the report of the Hartford School published in 1887, "the actual work of the school-room was presented by teachers fresh from their classes, recounting successes and failures, comparing methods, and all eager to examine any method which merited consideration from the results produced by it."

At the Third Convention of Articulation Teachers held at the Institution for the Improved Instruction of the Deaf, in New York City, in June, 1884, the Hon. Fred. H. Wines offered the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That for the improvement of the condition of the deaf who are susceptible of instruction in spoken language, nothing is more essential than the establishment and maintenance of a training school for teachers of the deaf.

Resolved, That the curriculum of such a school should include the anatomy and physiology of the organs of speech and hearing; vocal gymnastics; speech-reading; the elementary laws of sound; the methods of testing and developing latent hearing, when it exists; English orthography and orthoëpy, in their special relation to the deaf; and the art of imparting a knowledge of articulate speech to the deaf and semi-deaf.

Resolved, That a school of instruction for teachers in articulation might be made partially self-sustaining, but that in order to secure for it permanence and the highest possible degree of usefulness, an endowment is essential.

Resolved, That we commend the subject to the wealthy and benevolent, in the hope that they may perceive its importance and take advantage of the opportunity here afforded to render a real service to humanity.

The resolutions were amended by Mr. David Greenberger and adopted. The amendment was as follows:

Whereas, a knowledge of these branches must prove of great usefulness to teachers of the common schools also, in enabling them to remove the defects which are quite frequently found in the utterance of the pupils of the common schools; therefore,

Resolved, That normal schools, seminaries, and all similar institutions of learning, the graduates of which intend to become teachers, be petitioned to offer facilities for the study of the above-named branches.

Resolved, That a committee of three, of which the president of this convention shall be a member, be requested to devise such means as, in their judgment, shall best secure the objects of these resolutions.

The following committee was appointed: Rev. F. H. Wines, Mr. David Greenberger, and Dr. A. Graham Bell. This committee has never presented a report.

Particular reference should be made to the opportunities for the cultivation of teachers of the deaf which have been afforded in connection with the conventions and associations of teachers of the deaf. The exhibition of school-

room work and methods of teaching have deservedly been among the most attractive features of the conventions. The first and second summer meetings of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf were very much like summer normal schools. The Association enrolled in its service men of learning in lines of study which paralleled and bore upon the work of speech-teaching. Eminent physicians, who were also skilled and successful teachers, gave valuable professional lectures on the anatomy and physiology of the speech-organs and the relations of the various mechanical and intellectual factors of speech-production. The summer meeting of the Association at Northampton in June, 1899, was rich in opportunity for profit for visiting teachers. For an hour and a half of each day devoted to the purpose, the teachers and pupils of the Clarke School in six class-rooms of different grades illustrated the ordinary school-work, and the rooms were crowded with teachers from other schools. At several meetings of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, notably at Flint and Columbus, pupils have been present in greater or smaller numbers, forming a school of practice of no slight value, but the magnitude and extent of school-room work shown at the Clarke School upon the occasion mentioned has probably not been approached at any other convention.

Under the superintendency of Mr. S. T. Walker, five very successful local teachers' institutes were held at the Kansas School from 1887 to 1891.

Reading circles have not been so popular among teachers of the deaf as they have been with teachers of the hearing. In 1891, Mr. A. R. Spear, at that time Superintendent of the North Dakota School, urged the formation of a national reading circle among teachers of the deaf.

Among other important agencies for promoting the effi-

ciency of teachers, the department for the teachers of the deaf of the National Educational Association, teachers' meetings, summer schools, teachers' libraries, and the facilities which are open to teachers of the deaf, as well as common school teachers, must not be overlooked.

The value of the *American Annals of the Deaf* to the teacher cannot be overestimated. The *Educator*, of pleasant memory, attained a high degree of usefulness during the five years of its existence. The *Association Review* and the many school papers contain much that is helpful to the teacher.

In conclusion, the writer wishes to acknowledge his obligation to the *Annals*, the *Educator*, the Volta Bureau, and to superintendents and principals of schools for the deaf, for information without which this article could hardly have been written.

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THE LIFE OF THE DEAF AFTER SCHOOL.

ALL the world's a school, and all the men and women merely learners. They either are or should be preparing for the life that now is, and for that which is to come. The difference between the school of our youthful days and the school of the wide and open world is a difference only of degree. First the green blade of a little learning, then the ear of study and application, and then the full corn of ripened knowledge and experience. And, in spite of the great Koholeth, who declared that increase of knowledge was increase of sorrow, we can but think that a life without learning is a life without light or joy. If education in the mass enables a nation to acquire commercial supremacy, and to bring the good things of this

world unto its own doors, education in the individual should be equally advantageous to him in the struggle for existence. For Knowledge, indeed, is power, and Wisdom is the principal thing. "The grand result of schooling is a mind with just vision to discern; with free force to do: and the grand schoolmaster is Practice." Besides which, the pursuit of knowledge, like the vigor of the chase, brings a light to the eye and joy to the heart of every one who is possessed of an ordinarily healthy mind.

Too many of our deaf youths on both sides of the Atlantic think that, when their school-days are over, they need study no more, but just "get money and have a good time." They do not appear to think that one of the surest ways to "get money and have a good time"—in the best sense of the phrase—is to study. They all want to be successful but have no very clear conception of what constitutes success. They all want to be "healthy, wealthy, and wise," but if they do not study the laws of hygiene, the elements of finance, or the maxims of the philosophers, how can they expect to lay hold on such desiderata?

The deaf youth who starts out with the idea that the world owes him a living; that everybody must be kind and considerate to him on account of his loss of hearing, and that mistakes and failures will always be excused him on that account, had better stay at school till that notion can be knocked out of him. But he who begins by thinking—nay, believing—that he is bound to make some return for the education he has received; that he himself must do the "kind and considerate" business; and that mistakes and failures, though they may often occur, are inexcusable when resulting from want of thought and care, will be sure to succeed. Some one has said that people in general can be divided into two classes: those who go ahead and do something, and those who sit still and enquire, "Why wasn't it done the other way?" Most of

the failures, the drifters, and the ne'er-do-weels among the deaf belong to the latter class. These readily make their deafness a peg on which to hang all manner of excuses for their own failures; but, in nine cases out of ten, it will be found that the cause lay in their own laziness, lack of aspiration, low moral standard, ill temper, or hedgehog-like unsociability. Not that they are always greater sinners in these respects than their hearing brothers, but the very fact of their deafness should induce them to consider that they can only hope to compete successfully with their hearing fellows by making the best and wisest use of the faculties that remain. By keeping their minds clear, by observing the rules of social courtesy, by giving attention to the laws which govern life, to thrift, to moderation in all things, and to reading and self improvement, they can generally maintain the social or industrial position in which they may be placed, and, what is more, improve upon it. But, once set on the downward grade, their lack of common sense and self-restraint, and the pitiless pressure of competition, all combine to force them into the deepest depths of social misery. Is their deafness alone to be held to account for this? Forsooth, no!

But there is another and a brighter side. "Two men I honour and no third," said Carlyle. "First, the toilworn Craftsman that with earth-made Implement laboriously conquers the Earth and makes her man's. . . . A second man I honour, and still more highly: Him who is seen toiling for the spiritually indispensable; not daily bread, but the bread of Life . . . not earthly Craftsman only, but inspired Thinker, who with heaven-made Implement conquers Heaven for us." And surely Carlyle—and all of us—would doubly honor men like Kitto, Beethoven, Laurent Clerc, and others, who, in spite of their life's handicap, accomplished great things and added to the sum total of human happiness. Very recently I was

looking at a little publication in which the portraits and brief records of the careers of a hundred or more representative deaf persons of the United States were set forth in a neat arrangement of pages, and I thought what an excellent thing it would be if a copy of this book could be placed in the hands of all deaf boys and girls on their leaving school. Failing this, the authorities of Gallaudet College might publish, at some opportune time, a souvenir containing portraits of its more illustrious alumni, with sketches of their respective careers. This, I venture to think, would be at once a standing testimony to the excellence of its tuition, and a standing encouragement to the younger generation, who, on looking through its pages, would take heart of grace and determine to be in no whit behind their elder brothers and sisters. Example is forever better than precept; so true is it that, if we elevate ourselves, we also elevate others—and thus again are blessed.

There is an idea abroad that the mental horizon of the deaf must of necessity be limited. But the deaf are not so devoid of intelligence as are those who doubt their capacity to receive, and, on the other hand, to originate, ideas. With the gradual perfection of methods of education, and the excellent start in life now given to many of the deaf, their intellectual vision may be so developed as to range over the widest fields: from the transcendent idealism of Kant to the positivism of Comte; from the claims of the Sovereign Pontiff to those of "General" Booth; from land-nationalization to the licensing laws; from the "double standard" to the single-tax doctrine. In short, there is no conceivable field of inquiry—save those in which the ear alone is brought into requisition—from which the deaf person of average ability can be debarred. No such word as "fail" should be found in the pages of his lexicon. The world is all before him, with its treasures of art and literature, and the jewels

which an enquiring mind can win from the caves of knowledge. He may hold converse, through books, with the illustrious dead, or with the noble living. If he has learned a foreign language, he may go yet further afield and study the ponderous involutions of German logic or the nimble rhetoric of the Gaul. He may roam the world with Humboldt, Livingstone, and Stanley, and read to his heart's content in Nature's wondrous story-book. He may watch the white glory of winter snows, the soft green glamour of the spring, the pomp and pageantry of summer, and autumn's fiery writing on the wall; and all these things will have their lessons for him. And he must be a dolt indeed if he can gaze unmoved on snow-clad mountain fastnesses, the delicious greenery of woodland dells, "the little speedwell's darling blue," the shimmer and sheen of vast prairies, or the star-bespangled heavens hung in glory above his head.

Upon the whole he can be as happy as his hearing brother.

But the first condition of his progress, as Ruskin might say, is his determination to forget and his power to persevere in that determination. Let him pay no heed to the maudlin sentimentalists who offer him their well meant but chilly pity. They will not help him any. They are little better than the clammy weeds and molluscs which hinder a vessel's progress through the water, and should be gently but firmly brushed aside. Self-reliance, combined with simple faith in an Almighty Father, will be his surest sheet-anchor, and he will find that naught compares with the virile joy of speeding "o'er life's solemn main" with a definite purpose, like a quickening wind, to help one on. If he meet with people who do not share his belief in his own abilities, he need not retire peevishly into himself, but should set to work to *prove* those same abilities. This is by far the healthier way. And if he combine the *fortiter in re* with the *suaviter in modo*—

a courteous bearing and a desire to please—the chances are he will succeed. There is no use in nursing grievances, real or imaginary ; and by harboring morbid suspicions of everything and everybody, one can only get himself generally disliked. What gain is there in obstinacy, grimness, and unsociability ? Least of all what gain is there in such things to one already handicapped by deafness ? The world is, in sooth, a looking-glass. If one frowns and sulks, one gets frowns and sulks in return, but for the man who bears his rue with a smiling face and whose hand is outstretched in welcome to his fellow-men, a smile and a welcome are always ready. And will he not be an infinitely happier man for that ? Yea, verily.

It may be said of such a man, as of Wordsworth's villager, that

Rich in love
And sweet humanity, he was, himself,
To the degree that he desired, beloved.

I have written of the intellectual side of life before touching on the business or commercial side because, in order to succeed in the latter, it is, as a rule, essential that the former should be cultivated. The attainments of the deaf, low or high, and their position in society or in the business world, are reciprocally cause and effect. Just in the measure of their pre-eminence in matters intellectual, so may we hope that they will occupy commensurately pre-eminent positions in social life and in the business world. Here, again, the drawback of deafness should be counterbalanced by habits of industry, courtesy, punctuality, and despatch, and of careful attention to details. Assuredly, a deaf man who forms these habits is far more likely to succeed in business than his hearing brother who does not. But when to his deafness he adds a slovenly unpunctuality, a boorish manner, careless execution of orders entrusted to him, and a wilful

ignorance of small details, there is no hope for him in this world. Whatever his trade or profession may be, he should strive to perfect himself in it. Deafness, it is said, aids concentration, and this may be one compensation of which full advantage should be taken. Certain it is that one should diligently study the literature of his profession. Be it farming, printing, or painting, or anything else, he should watch all developments, and be ready. He should keep himself informed of the state of the markets, the fluctuation of stocks and shares, the latest ideas and patents, and the latest time and labor-saving appliances. If he does not, the chances are that he will get left.

It is impossible to overestimate the value of reading to the deaf. By its means, as was said before, they can converse with the illustrious dead, and with the noble living; they can keep abreast of the times, or search back through the centuries for the causes of the decline and fall of empires, theories, and systems; and they can gather inspiration from the records of great men's lives—which, as Longfellow would say, may well remind them that they, too, can make their lives sublime, and, departing, leave behind them footprints on the sands of time.

There is a certain method in reading which should be followed in order to reap the full benefit thereof. First, one should consider what he already knows of the subject upon which he is about to enter—overhaul the catechism, so to speak. Then, as he goes through the book, he should look for corrections or confirmations of any decided opinion he may possess, striving to divest himself of bias one way or another, and taking care to look for *corrections* as well as confirmations. In this way one may cultivate the art of thinking—which, after all, is the aim of all true education. One need not, by the way, confuse erudition with education. The mere accumulation of facts and statistics will not help one much. Well mingled knowl-

edge, which one knows how to employ to advantage in his profession or trade, will, however, be of untold value.

One should have no interests that interfere with the particular aim one has in view, and no intimate companions that one cannot honestly respect. Above all, the deaf should, if they are matrimonially inclined, be careful in the choice of a lifelong companion. It may be, as Ruskin says, that the soul's armor is never well set to the heart unless a woman's hand has braced it, and I believe it to be a good thing that the deaf should have homes of their own, with the consequent centering of affections and interests and the steadying sense of responsibility. but it behooves every young man to consider whether, in marrying, he adds to his own welfare and that of his prospective partner, and to find out *before* instead of *after* marriage whether he and she are suited to each other. The concealment of defects of temper and intellect before marriage, and their almost daily manifestations afterwards, are responsible for many of the miserable homes one hears about. A happy marriage is a heaven upon earth, but a mistaken choice invariably results in an irksome and galling bondage. "Next to a good wife no wife is best"—and the converse proposition holds equally true. Many of the deaf are drawn to each other by mutual sympathy and understanding, and the resultant marriages are, many of them, happy ones. No invidious comparisons are intended to be made when one adds that it affords matter for gratification when the deaf choose, or are chosen by, hearing partners, who will be a help and a comfort to them through life. The sense of inferiority about which some of the deaf are apprehensive in these matters is largely of their own making. There is no such feeling where true love exists. It is not impossible that, among the infinitely great number of "unappropriated blessings" in the world, there will be found as loving, true, and

helpful women as there are among the smaller numbers of the deaf. It is certainly an advantage to have a partner who can be ears for one, and it is well for the possible children that one, at least, of their parents should be able to evolve ordered and articulate speech out of their little gleeful crowings. And yet one is conscious, as he writes, that many children, whose parents are both deaf, have grown up to be among our brightest citizens. In any case, the important bearing which marriage has upon one's future life should never be lost sight of. Among the main considerations should be: the establishment of one's social position, the strengthening of social ties, and the real mutual help, the halving of sorrows and the doubling of joys, which a judicious marriage may ensure.

Having written thus far of the life that now is—of those things which are seen and temporal—one may touch upon the relation of the deaf to those things which are unseen and eternal. No educated man can conscientiously avoid the subject.

The voice of his own soul,
Heard in the calm of thought,

tells him that his life is not his own, but God's; and that some day, somewhere, somehow, he must render account of it. As a sentient atom in the vast scheme of cosmic evolution, he cannot altogether die. The inner consciousness, the *ego*, has a more than physical basis. It is linked with the Creator, and the King must have His own again. Thus it is that true religion is like noble music, floating like a chime above our daily lives, giving to them a rhythm and a meaning. And it may be that, where the outer ear is closed, the listening ear of the heart is more attuned to the Divine harmonies of the spiritual life. It is also possible that through the loss of hearing one may be led to do just those things that he was meant to do—things that shall be accounted to him for righteousness. Furthermore, one cannot but believe, with George Meredith,

that there is nothing for the mind but one grasp of happiness from that uppermost pinnacle of wisdom, whence we see that this world is well designed.

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THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF-BLIND AT THE NEW YORK INSTITUTION.

I BECAME a pupil of the New York Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb on the 14th of September, 1877. I was the second pupil to be placed in the deaf-blind class, although far from being blind then. I was placed in this class because it was thought that, being near-sighted, I should get along more conveniently than in an ordinary class. I had become deaf three or four years previously from bilious fever, but still retained my speech. No doubt the measles I had, when much younger, were the cause of my poor eyesight.

On entering the school-room for the first time I saw sitting at a table by the window a lady and a youth. The lady was Miss B. V. Fitzhugh. The youth was James H. Caton. After being introduced to my new teacher and class-mate she secured for me some text-books. My first studies were a "Child's History of the United States," "Peet's Scripture Lessons," "Harper's Introductory Geography," and arithmetic. Before I lost my hearing I had attended a small hearing school several years, and was, therefore, able to read and understand primary books.

I was not long in making the acquaintance of my class-mate, whom I regarded as the most extraordinary individual I had ever seen. I soon learned that after being two years at school he was taken ill with the small-pox, which occasioned the entire loss of his sight. I also

learned that he had been born deaf. A year after Caton had recovered from the disease it was thought that his education could be continued in spite of his blindness. He was therefore placed in an ordinary class of pupils, and received instruction through the sense of touch, the sign-language, and the manual alphabet. The teacher not being able to devote much of his time to his blind pupil, the boys in the class were selected one by one in turn to assist the teacher and help Caton along in his studies. As it took too much of the teacher's time with a large class on his hand to attend to Caton's wants, and it distracted the attention of the pupils from the teacher, this method of instruction proved unsatisfactory. It was deemed wise to give him a teacher and room all to himself.

The late Miss B. V. Fitzhugh, who was a wonder in her untiring, ceaseless work, was the teacher selected to perform the task of giving instruction to the Institution's first blind pupil. Caton's severe illness which occasioned the loss of his sight in all probability had no effect upon his mental faculties. When he recovered from the small-pox he seemed just as bright and as quick to learn as when he could see. Miss Fitzhugh began by giving him instruction in a general rather than special way. She read his lessons to him in his hand over and over again until he could recite them by heart, and explained everything to him which he did not understand. Although he made rapid progress in his studies Caton was never able to write a legible hand. Indeed it is very hard for most blind persons, no matter how intelligent they may be, to write legibly. A typewriter was purchased for him, and within a short time he was able to operate it almost as well as a person who could see. The introduction of this machine into the class was found to be of great benefit to both pupil and teacher. It proved to be a time and labor saving machine. It was at first thought that Caton would

experience more or less difficulty with his machine, since he could not hear when the bell rang for him to move the roller back. However, he overcame this drawback with little difficulty by simply touching the little wheel at short intervals or after he had printed a few words. With the aid of the typewriter the boy recited his lessons, wrote his compositions and journals, and letters to relatives and friends. Caton used idiomatic English remarkably well for a person afflicted as he was. He loved nothing more than to debate with his associates on any subject.

Caton knew his companions and friends as soon as they placed their hands in his. I have known him instantly to recognize friends or old acquaintances whom he had not come in contact with for several years simply by the character of their hands or their method of talking. An old acquaintance whom he had not met for seven years came to the Institution one day. Before being introduced to him as a stranger, the acquaintance removed the diamond ring he wore so that the blind youth would not recognize him by it. To the surprise of all, when the two shook hands, Caton exclaimed, "You are Mr. B——." He was afterwards asked by a bystander how he came to recognize Mr. B——. He said he remembered he wore a ring upon his finger, but as that was gone he knew him simply by a slight scar on the edge of his hand near the little finger. Mr. B—— said he had never known before that he had such a scar there.

On one occasion, during Caton's pupilage, a mock-trial was held in the Institution chapel, and Caton was arrested and made to testify as a witness. When asked to give his testimony he said he knew the boy had stolen the chicken. "How do you know it when you are blind?" asked the judge. "I was standing alone," said Caton, "in the doorway of the Institution, when the boy came running in at full speed and as he passed me I tried to catch hold of him, but failed to do so. As I was in the

act of attempting to grab him I felt the chicken's head concealed under his coat. I also knew who he was from the fact that he had two warts on the back of his left hand." Caton, like almost all blind persons, had a very delicate and sensitive touch, and readily felt and recognized things and persons around him with his hands.

He was the most sociable and jolly blind person I have ever come in contact with, but, although he always appeared to be merry, he often said he was tired of his blindness and longed to see again.

A week or so after my admission a new pupil was enrolled. This was Richard F. Clinton. Like Caton, he was blind and deaf. His hearing and sight he had lost when in dresses, and as he had never been to school he was in the darkness of ignorance. We all know how a deaf child is taught to read, write, and cipher, when he first comes to school. The deaf-blind child is taught in about the same way as the seeing deaf pupil. The only difference is that the deaf-blind child's education is carried on through the sense of touch and the manual alphabet. Miss Fitzhugh first taught Clinton the manual alphabet and such things as she thought he would readily understand. After learning the alphabet he had no idea of its use. In order that he might have an idea of the shape or forms of each of the letters in the English alphabet Miss Fitzhugh made a set of the letters consisting of twenty-six blocks, each bearing a letter formed of tacks with raised heads. The pupil was now taught one letter after another until all the letters were learned. He was then taught the names of a group of common objects. The teacher first taught her pupil the name of the object and then, bringing it to him or taking him to where it stood on a table, allowed him to take it up and feel all over it. If it were the cup she would take it up and drink out of it, merely to give her pupil an idea of what the cup was for, as well as to teach him its name. In perform-

ing this action or illustration the pupil's hands would, of course, be on the object so as to feel or see for himself exactly what was being done.

By slow degrees the boy learned the names of many common objects and their uses. He was then taught to do something with each object and also to tell what he had done. "Touch the pitcher," the teacher would spell, and after having explained the words in signs, the teacher and pupil would perform the action jointly. After explaining to him the meaning of the question, "What did you do?" the teacher would show him what he had done by a second performance. By this time the pupil had learned to converse tolerably well in signs from constant association with his fellow pupils. Learning how to carry on conversation by signs was certainly a great help to him. It was one of the stepping-stones to his improvement. Clinton was taught simple English and was kept at it until he was able to write a letter home himself. The errors he made were of course explained to him and corrected.

The method of educating the deaf-blind at the New York Institution has steadily improved with the advance of time and science, and is therefore far superior in most every way to the original plan. Caton and Clinton had to have their lessons read to them in their hands several times or until they could remember them. Spelling in the hand over and over again was, of course, no easy task. It was a waste of time. Benson's teacher now copies his lessons, or the lessons she intends he shall study, with a Braille writer, and he studies from the paper himself. The teacher keeps all the lessons her pupil has learned in book form, and so he has the advantage of reviewing whenever necessary.

By her success in educating both Caton and Clinton, Miss Fitzhugh may be said to have accomplished a great work. Unfortunately for her and the good work she had

in hand, this lady was not strong enough to stand the necessary care and toil. She resigned in 1880 on account of ill-health after having been a teacher of the deaf-blind for four years. So well had she instructed Caton that by the time she resigned he was ready to enter the High Class.

Miss Fitzhugh was succeeded by Miss Maria Toles, who taught the class for four years or until her retirement in 1884. While she had charge of the class two more pupils were added to it. One was Martha Moorehouse, a blind deaf-mute, and the other was E. M. Lyng, a semi-blind boy, about fourteen years of age. After Miss Toles's resignation the blind class was taught by Mr. C. Q. Mann, and finally by Mr. Walter B. Peet. In 1884 I was put in the articulation class. The year previous E. M. Lyng had been transferred to the New Jersey school, which had been founded a year before. The year following Caton graduated. R. F. Clinton, too, graduated in 1889. Miss Moorehouse had left school, and so when Clinton graduated the deaf-blind class went out of existence.

The Institution, however, had one blind pupil who was in the kindergarten class. This was Orris Benson, who had been enrolled in the fall of 1889. Orris Benson, the most extraordinary of all the blind pupils the Institution has yet had, was born in the wilds of Sullivan county, N. Y., on the 7th of September, 1882. When but a child of three he became a victim to cerebro-spinal meningitis. This disease deprived him entirely of sight, hearing, and speech. He remembers nothing of what happened to him previous to his affliction. He has no idea of light and darkness. Richard Clinton had just sight enough in one eye to tell when he was in the light or the dark, or when the hand or any object was moved before it, and he remembered things and persons he had seen before he became blind. When Benson came to the Institution he was six years old. It was thought, on his arrival, from

the character of the disease which had swept away his sight and hearing, that he could not be taught much. He was taught in the same way as Clinton and was quicker to learn than either Clinton, Caton, or Moorehouse. In conversing with him for a while one readily sees that he is as intelligent as the average individual, and nine out of ten persons will not feel inclined to believe that he was stricken deaf, dumb, and blind at such an early age as three. He has learned as much as any deaf-mute blessed with the sense of vision who has been at school the same length of time.

The most surprising thing about Orris Benson, I think, is that he has been taught to speak and even to read the lips a little. None of the other blind deaf-mutes mentioned in this paper were taught speech. Benson's sense of touch is apparently more keen than Caton's. He generally finds out who his associates are without examining their hands. Since he was transferred from the kindergarten class in the Mansion House, he has made remarkable progress in his studies.

The Institution at present has two blind pupils. One is Orris Benson and the other is Katie McGirr, who was enrolled as a pupil in the summer of 1890. Miss McGirr, during the severe and memorable blizzard of 1888, when a child of seven, contracted a severe cold which wholly deprived her of both sight and hearing. She still retains her speech. She has made very satisfactory progress in her studies.

It may be asked whether any of the deaf-blind pupils who are or who have been receiving instruction at the New York Institution are as far advanced intellectually as Helen Keller. The answer to such a question is best given by Mr. Enoch Henry Carrier, Principal of the Institution. He says Miss Keller has had exceptional advantages. "She has had the benefit of having been taught from childhood by a teacher who is as remarkable as Helen Keller herself. There is but one Miss Sullivan.

Helen also has had the stimulus which comes from living upon highly favored terms in the Boston atmosphere, in contact with what is intellectual and inspiring. But I wish to record my conviction that in pure mentality Katie McGirr, one of our three deaf-blind pupils, is the equal of Helen."

In the year 1893, the year before I graduated from the Institution, I lost my eyesight, it having steadily but slowly declined from the time of my admittance. In my article "The Deaf, Dumb and Blind," which appeared in the *New York Sun* of Sunday, March 4th, referring to my own personal experience, I said, among other things: I am often asked how it seems to be deprived of the sense of hearing and sight. It seems to me, especially when all alone, to be dark and still. One may perhaps get a better idea of my condition by blindfolding himself and keeping his ears plugged up for a week. Perhaps he will come to the conclusion that his life is not worth living and try to end it. Spelling in the hand is, I must say, a rather slow and tedious way to read. A good rapid speller can read to me about three columns of the *Sun* in an hour or thereabouts. How greatly the blind-deaf would be benefited were Mr. Edison, the wizard, to invent a machine with an artificial hand so made that when a book or paper was adjusted to the machine the artificial hand would spell the contents into the hand of the deaf-blind person directly from the book or paper. But it cannot be. The deaf-blind must be content with their raised-letter books and learn as much as they can from them.

Some people want to know whether I can imagine how they look. I wish I could. I can no more imagine how a person looks than one can imagine how the people, if there be any, on the planet Mars look. I cannot tell colors, neither can I smell. That I can speak well is a great blessing. As I suppose all blind people do, I see things from the inside.

STANLEY ROBINSON.

THE GOLDEN MEAN.

*A contribution toward the elucidation of the conflict of methods.**

It indicates real progress in the domain of pedagogy that we recognize mechanical methods of teaching as contrary to nature, and are therefore taking measures to grade our pupils according to psychological principles and in such a way that the individuality of each shall receive proper consideration.

The same trait of our times is making its mark upon the conflict between speech and signs in the instruction of the deaf, and I therefore regard it as a sign of progress. This tendency existed in its lighter phases as a psychological manifestation as early as the time when the sign-language was crowded out by the oral method, or, to be more exact, when the ascendancy of the latter was about to be decided. The results achieved with the semi-mute and semi-deaf produced such an enthusiasm that all psychological foothold was lost. While we naturally gave to the one what was his due, we overlooked the idiosyncrasies and individuality of the other. Instead of taking adequate measures to render permanent the advantages announced by the glad tidings of the pure oral method, we applauded a hysterical shout of "Forward!" as the cure-all, and put the future, we should say the present time, in pawn as pledge for the redemption of all these promises. Nowadays, when hardly any teacher of the deaf in Germany employs the language of signs, because he does not understand and is forbidden to use it, when the majority of living deaf-mutes have acquired

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language and the necessary elementary branches by means of the oral method, all deaf-mutes use the sign-language in intercourse with one another just as if the profession still used the method of the past; and deaf-mutes articulate just as defectively and unintelligibly as if they had been educated solely by the aid of the sign-language. Or am I mistaken? Is it in Berlin alone that the deaf are so defectively educated and use signs? No, for the majority of the Berlin deaf are from the provinces, and many of those native to the city, even though there are no external marks to distinguish them from the provincials, are able to profit by a conversation or instruction given in simple oral form. It would almost seem as if the deaf, on leaving school, bid adieu to the speech they have acquired with so much toil at the same time that they say good-bye to their teachers and their books.

That we were only influenced by reasons of utility when we undertook to teach the deaf speech is sufficiently well known, and that the deaf also have an inkling of this fact is shown by the medium of their intercourse with the hearing and among themselves. With the former they use speech, and with the latter the sign-language. While they use the sign-language with masterly ease, their articulation is halting and at the same time indistinct and defective. In order to reach the causes of this deplorable state of affairs I should like to elucidate the following points. It may then be seen what it is that has been neglected until this time and how we can remedy the defect.

1. *It is difficult to understand the deaf.*

My experience, when I was first greeted and questioned by deaf-mute children, is the experience, repeated daily, of all those accosted by deaf-mutes—at first one under-

stands them not at all or with great difficulty. This circumstance is not surprising, as the ear of a hearing person has become accustomed to a certain tone of pronunciation. Increased attention is necessary to understand even dialectic forms. But while every language possesses resonance and even in strange form arrests the ear by its harmony, *the speech of the deaf-mute remains toneless and, therefore, hard and unpleasant, and repels and tires the hearer.* The deaf-mute must remain an untuned instrument.

But, nevertheless, what emotions are aroused by the first word with which a deaf-mute child greets its parents with shining eyes—Father! Mother!

The teacher understands everything, for from the first utterance his ear has become accustomed to the monotonous articulation of the deaf, and the parents are grateful for even the harshest tone, for does it not open the first breach in the wall that separates them from their darling? They, too, become reconciled to this tuneless instrument. So long as the vocabulary of the child consists of a few sharply articulated words, and the latter represent objects and phenomena near or present, comprehension is not difficult. But when, as invariably happens, the articulation loses its sharp outlines, when the child has to study the meaning to be conveyed, the ease of comprehension dwindles. The manifestations of this difficulty, as shown by the shaking of the head, the elevation of the eyebrows, and perplexed glances while the child is speaking, quickly rob the poor little one of all pleasure in its articulation, and slowly but surely place obstacles in the path of the articulation exercises.

To these drawbacks there must be added another—the imperfect language of the speaking deaf-mute. Like all modern languages, our own possesses an immense variety of forms. A much longer period of schooling than is now permitted would be necessary to give the deaf even an

elementary command of language. A considerable portion of the school hours must be devoted to the acquisition of knowledge and accomplishments which have no other connection with language than that the latter must be used in teaching them. For this reason accuracy of language is impossible in certain studies and branches. The pupil is crushed under the weight of matter and confused by the immense variety of expressions. He oscillates with his feeble linguistic strength between matter and form, and hence the constant uncertainty of the latter. An uncertain manner of expression leads to misunderstandings, and tedious discussion of disputed points leaves both parties dissatisfied, and chokes the desire to speak.

An interpreter is called in, and one tries, if possible, to come to an understanding by writing; if that is impossible, by signs. Now I know very well from personal experience that even signs do not prevent misunderstandings, and I wish to emphasize here the fact that this medium alone does not insure salvation. My opinion in this connection is well known.

2. It is difficult for the deaf to understand us.

The ability to understand the spoken word depends superficially upon skill in lip-reading. The prime condition for the acquisition of this ability, and its gradual development into an art, is a good eye. Weakened sight is therefore the first obstacle in this path. But even a normal eye trained by years of practice will meet with another difficulty—the indistinct utterance of those who converse with the deaf. Very few persons know how to speak naturally. It is easy to decipher thousands of hand-writings, as the letters have a permanent character, but it is impossible to understand every speaker, as the elements of the spoken words present but a vanishing image to the eye. Therefore, whoever would attain to skill as a lip-reader must accustom himself to a limited circle of

acquaintances. There is no absolute accuracy in lip-reading. After leaving school, moreover, the deaf lack the opportunity of practice in this accomplishment, and therefore they do not understand what is said to them. One has to use paper and pencil in communicating with them. Among themselves they resort to the sign-language.

Even with eight years of schooling the deaf can acquire only a limited command of language.

Therefore, if any one would hold intercourse with the deaf he should study simplicity of speech and language. But this requires a certain skill not possessed by everybody. How easily the teachers of the deaf are understood! But they know how to be simple, yes, very simple. Their skill in simplicity of question and communication is astonishing to the layman who is never able to make himself understood. But, indeed, other secrets here come into play of which it is best to say nothing.

The poor deaf-mute answers obscure questions and communications with a shrug of the shoulders. It is so seldom that he finds any one with whom he can converse orally that, discouraged and losing faith in the alleged art, he confines himself to intercourse with his brethren.

When neither the written nor spoken form of language is understood, the layman resorts to gestures. But the gestures used by those unacquainted with the character of a natural sign-language generally convey nothing, as they are without meaning.

These difficulties in conversation are certainly not calculated to preserve or increase satisfaction with the speech that has been so laboriously acquired. The deaf-mute meets with disappointment wherever he goes with his very limited and in most cases indistinct speech. Society desires easy and rapid intercourse, and wishes to be pleasantly entertained. Many avoid the deaf person, and shift him upon the teacher or the initiated. This

seems to the young aspirant to be a still further curtailment of his already too meagre pleasures. After he has once been pushed aside on account of his infirmity, he loses his love for speech, and what was formerly enthusiasm degenerates into unjustifiable resentment. The linguistic bridge built at the expense of years of toil does not carry him into the camp of the hearing world. He remains in the sign-making world and the bridge falls to pieces for want of care.

We have no right to expect a just and correct appreciation of the speaking world from this sign-making world. Therefore all those are right who assert that—

3. It is difficult to reconcile the deaf with their social position.

Keen judgment, acquired by experience and study, is necessary to a correct conception of the occurrences and phenomena of social life. The more superficial one's education the more incorrect this conception. Now the deaf-mute must be classed among the least educated. The long-continued and laborious instruction in articulation, without which it is impossible to acquire speech, offers the childish mind too little food, and hardly any opportunity to exercise the faculty of thought. The long period devoted to the study and acquisition of language of the most rudimentary form is filled with memory exercises that are rather hampered than aided by the mere mechanical skill in lip-reading, a skill that must likewise be acquired while at school. Even the simplest opinion concerning concrete things and phenomena is more of a physical than a mental operation in the pupil, as his attention must be fixed upon the position of the vocal organs. An unconscious, purely reflex freedom in the use of the organs of speech is possible only after years of practice. Even when the pupil has advanced so far that he can form a conclusion, he has yet to struggle

with the task of putting it into language—a task that is simply endless in any inflected language, so that the strength of the pupil succumbs in most cases.

How much precious time, which to the hearing child is a time of pleasant mental activity, must be devoted to learning forms! How many priceless hours of the precious school years are filled with purely mechanical articulation and corrections of sounds, while the same hours afford the hearing child such rich mental growth!

Verily the verbal treasure of the deaf child is scanty and crude, and therefore it is not strange that with his imperfectly developed judgment, and unlike his hearing brethren, he is unable to drink from the Pierian spring of instructive books. And even when he understands the instructions given him he is not always able to form the correct conclusion from them.

Therefore, it happens that even modern law treats the deaf-mute as an inferior being, a circumstance that fills many of us teachers with the keenest regret.

Even if we are not responsible for these conditions, as we cannot remove the natural obstacles to the acquisition of language, our responsibility becomes greater whenever we embitter the little ones by requiring more than they can do, or by petting them too much or spoiling them by luxurious conditions of school and clothing. The last would work no harm, even if carried to the greatest extent imaginable, were it not for the fact that the recipients and beneficiaries are imperfectly educated deaf-mutes. It is so easy for them to recognize in all those kindnesses that we grant them in such ready and generous measure only a sort of compensation for their deafness, and they form the habit of judging with the same standard of measure in later life. Without considering the quality of their work they demand the same pay as that received by the most expert workmen. If this is denied for cause, they fail to understand why, and thus we find with most deaf-

mutes constant change of work and place, and, as a consequence, the pursuit of fortune in a desire to travel.

If the teacher does not measure the task by the capacity of the child, the latter sinks under the burden and becomes indifferent alike to praise or blame. Stripped of all pleasure in work, he drags himself stolidly through the school course, and enters life faint of heart. His uncertainty and faint-heartedness in every direction are the result of his own dissatisfaction. A weakling will never be satisfied with his condition.

Not only mental poverty, but defective education as well, are the causes of the difficult life conditions in which so many deaf-mutes find themselves. Though these conditions may externally seem peaceful and secure, we can speak of inner happiness with but few. Only harmoniously developed, steadfast natures are capable of true happiness, and such natures we almost never find among the deaf. The sustenance and comfort that religion offers to millions of souls, it has as yet been unable to offer in the same degree and measure to the deaf. This is proved by the complaints at least of those who say—

4. *It is difficult to hold the deaf to a religious life.*

If the deaf clung to their religion as is generally the case with simple, natural, uneducated human beings, they would cheerfully and willingly obey and fulfil the modest demands of their pastors and teachers. Why is it, then, that they are religiously so indifferent? Why do they dam up the only spring whence they might drink refreshment and strength, consolation and inward peace? Is it that they belong to that class of the half-educated, who from mental sloth, or from want of real thoughtfulness, disregard all truth, and construct a cosmogony of their own? No, the cause is otherwise.

In its deepest aspect religion is a matter of the heart. Reason simply aids to illuminate its truths, and lead us

to a deeper perception of them. In every case religious perceptions and the acquisition of religious truths are possible only by the medium of language. But to the deaf the religious instruction at school, like most other lessons, was a physical task accomplished only through lip-reading, studied articulation and practice, at least in the intermediate classes. What did the soul gain thereby? The whole matter of the catechism was indeed learned verbally, but only those comprehended it and felt its influence upon the heart and mind who understood its abstract language without labor, namely, the semi-mute and semi-deaf. The religious influence shrinks to a smaller measure as the difficulties of the language exhaust in greater degree the strength of teacher and pupil. The understanding of the truths of salvation is not so far advanced that it may remain as seed and attain larger growth in later life.

But nowadays, it is said, the deaf have preaching in that language of signs that they so much desire. This language must be adapted to touch the innermost chords in the heart of the spectator, and therefore inspire him with love for what is good and hold him in the paths of religion. To this I answer as follows:

Signs lead more to error and misconception than any spoken word. There is no uniform sign-language, as in order to create such we should first need uniform world language. For the artificial sign-language consists only of verbal language translated into visible signs—figures and symbols, plastic representation and mimicry. Were such a uniform sign-language created, the deaf-mute, in order to understand it, would first have to learn the uniform verbal language. This artificial language has but one purpose, viz., to render intercourse more convenient, to save writing material, and to be understood by all in meetings of the deaf, as lip-reading is adapted only for *tête-à-tête* conversation, or at best a very small audience.

Therefore, a universal artificial sign-language that can be everywhere understood is impossible at present, since every language has its own laws, and the latter have the most varied influence upon its form.

Natural signs, on the other hand, are incapable of representing the supersensual. Their meaning must coincide with what is apparent to the senses. If now any one desires to teach the abstract truths of salvation in the sign-language, he must employ an artificial language created in the country where he may be. In our case this language conforms closely to the German language, and, as I said before, is simply a translation of that language into signs. The number of these signs is the same as the number of words. But as these signs are not sharply defined as visual quantities; as their form and connection depend upon the vivacity of the speaker; as their quick, changing and evanescent outlines exercise no permanent influence upon the eye—too weak influence being accompanied with excessive mobility—and as the defective command of language of the deaf-mute spectators also hampers a correct interpretation, so many misconceptions arise in the use of this artificial language that I am unable to allow it the value ascribed to it by the deaf. It is an auxiliary in communication in the same manner as lip-reading and writing are—only that and nothing more; for it creates no conception of a fact, no contents of an idea. It is a symbol, and as such conveys no idea unless the idea has been won through observation and linguistic development. In fact, the gesture sign must be connected directly with the meaning of the word. This process is, however, not necessary for all, and should, therefore, be limited only to persons of whom I shall speak later.

This short examination of these very important points shows that the results of deaf-mute education are still far removed from the ideal. The application of the pure oral method with all deaf-mutes, without discrimination,

and without considering capacity, utterance, and eyesight is, to say the least, a mistake. I would be obliged to call it by a worse name if I were convinced that the authorities who prescribe our work had looked without prejudice and sufficiently deep into the circles of the adult deaf. It may be that we feel a pleased satisfaction with even the scanty language accomplishments of the deaf, and that we regard a thorough development toward a higher plane as impossible. This pleasure is reasonable and is a trophy for the tireless teacher who does not work for exhibition and for the moment, but for a lifetime. But, of the little taught, what remains as a possession in later life? Where do we find skill in speech, steadfastness of character, and religious feeling? Well, I have already given the answer, and everyone may examine how far it is accurate.

By using the pure oral method in the instruction of all deaf-mutes we show that we do not correctly estimate the difficulty of language acquisition in general and of language acquisition by the artificial channel of lip-reading in particular.

Language is a precious gift for all deaf-mutes, but in offering it to them by this single method alone we create such difficulties that the weaker ones are unable to take it. It is our duty to point this out, and to make suggestions to remedy the trouble.

The sign-language has been proposed by the deaf themselves as the means to secure this end. The teachers, on the other hand, strive to secure the desired result by urging the classification of pupils according to their capacity, the establishment of small boarding schools, and a more extensive use of writing, in order, at least, to make the acquisition of language easier.

If we divest ourselves of the vanity of believing that deaf-mute children can learn to speak through our skill, and keep in mind the fact that at the most only twenty-

five per cent. of all the congenitally deaf-mutes after leaving school can speak so as to be understood even by their teachers, we must ask: Why all this toil of the teacher? Why the endless labor of the pupil? We might have applied this wasted energy in the mental development of the child. If the time thrown away upon mechanical articulation, in the face of our conviction that the articulation of the child would remain unintelligible, had been devoted to language instruction with the aid of signs and writing, the child would have been spared disappointment, would have become more accurate in written expression, would have a more extensive command of language, and thus a more extensive intellectual development, and would be more useful as a citizen, because more content and possessing a stronger character.

In order to be just to this great class of the deaf, all the semi-mute and semi-deaf—to whom, in general, my remarks do not apply—and all those who possess a passable articulation and average intelligence, should be educated in separate schools. Only then shall we be able to satisfy the wants of the weakest, whose number is not inconsiderable. For these I can see but one path to happiness—to instruct them in language with the aid of signs. By this I do not mean that the sign-language should become paramount, as the deaf desire. After the child has received instruction in articulation, which can certainly be given more quickly, the teacher should accompany the spoken word by its sign whenever the intelligence of the child falters in the attempt at lip-reading. The sign should be given to the word only after the object has been presented, the image has been fixed, and the meaning explained. The pupil can then more easily read the lips of the teacher, the weak faculty of perception is strengthened, the word is recalled more easily, and much time is gained, of which last dull pupils can never have

too much. Therefore, there will not be much differentiation in the method employed with such pupils. To secure better success in language development we must make use of every advantage, if at the same time we wish to save the children from exhaustive and overburdensome effort.

A sign-language created in such a manner, and having a psychological foundation, should prove a useful and intelligible means of communication for the deaf that would prevent misunderstandings. In such a case, the interpreters for the deaf in courts of law, who are often unable to question their own former pupils through speech and writing, or even through signs, in the thorough and comprehensive manner required, would be able to attain their purpose more quickly and surely. In fact, if there is anything that demonstrates the weakness of our school training it is just this point. These deaf-mutes have received from six to eight years' instruction in speech, have sometimes when in school caused astonishment by the distinctness and correctness of their articulation, and yet afterwards their own teacher must resort to a means of communication that he has condemned. These facts should long ago have convinced the authorities that the separation and classification of deaf children is the only path to the happiness of all.

The pastors of the deaf should also adapt themselves to this separation of the deaf and the method of instruction involved. To those who are good lip-readers and possess an extensive vocabulary they should preach orally. It has always produced a strange impression upon me, as well as upon those directly concerned, that those who are able to understand speech must content themselves with signs. Why do they not receive that which is their due? Is such a course calculated to elevate or advance their unique social condition? But to such deaf-mutes as are limited in language and uncertain

in lip-reading one should preach both orally and in signs.

We should be indifferent as to the manner of communication of the deaf among themselves if we can only offer them the most advantageous opportunity possible to acquire language. Among themselves they will use signs almost exclusively, as with the lack of hearing they possess no guarantee of the correct position of the vocal organs. Instead of riding the hobby of a theory we should be zealous to employ any practicable way we can think of to render their progress through life easier. Even the successful accomplishment of my plan will not realize the ideal. The ideal is individual instruction, or education in small groups at home or in small boarding schools. But, remembering the great expense involved in such a plan, I confine myself to what is attainable, and therefore suggest the following arrangement for the educational system of the deaf :

1. The semi-mute and semi-deaf should be taught separately. If their number is too small they should be taught with the brightest of the true deaf-mutes, but in such a way that they can reach a higher plane.

2. Only bright deaf-mutes are capable of education orally, with the complete exclusion of signs. Their separation into several groups is not inconsistent with the method.

3. Dull pupils and those who speak indistinctly should be instructed with the aid of the sign-language. It is desirable that this group should also be separately domiciled, so that the teachers' may remain faithful to the respective processes employed. In this connection, also, we should take pains not to be too particular about assigning pupils to this group. Does not practical life teach us daily that most of our oral language work has been thrown away? If we proceed according to a liberal standard we shall be able to do justice to all. Those who

strive upward we can lift higher; those who can never learn to fly we can lead quietly on *terra firma* to the desired end.

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THE POSITIVE VERSUS THE NEGATIVE IN EDUCATION.

ALWAYS when making comparisons we are at first much more deeply impressed by contrasts than by points of resemblance, particularly if the differences in our objects of comparison are very strongly marked. Therefore, since entering on my duties with the deaf, after several years of experience with hearing children, my strongest impressions have resulted from repeated perceptions of conditions and actions hitherto almost unknown to me.

In the education of the deaf it is only the negation of the power of hearing with which we have to deal, and yet until we are brought face to face with the situation it is almost impossible to have more than a slight comprehension of how much else is included in this one great deprivation. Indeed, we are so constantly confronted by the negative in this work, that even the teacher is in danger of being drawn into the general drift of inclinations, soon learning to accept every phase of existing conditions as inevitable, and forgetting that, as a perfectly normal being, physically and mentally, it is his mission to provide an atmosphere and environment which shall refine and upbuild the character of his charges.

We know that education, in order to accord with the physical, moral, and intellectual sides of the child's nature, must have a corresponding threefold character. If, however, in considering the physical, moral, and intellectual sides of education for the deaf, we dared to give

pre-eminence to any one of these, doubtless the moral side, because of its development of self-control, would appeal to us as of superior importance.

Character, too, is wholly dependent on moral training. And after all is said, is not the upbuilding of the character the greatest aim of education?

Some one truthfully tells us:

Sow an impulse, reap an act ;
Sow an act, reap a tendency ;
Sow a tendency, reap a habit ;
Sow a habit, reap a character.

Since character, then, is the logical result of many impulses, it is clearly our duty to create for our pupils those conditions that are conducive to happy positive impulses. For just as constant dripping wears away the stone, a constant impulse to commit actions of a negative nature leaves destructive impressions on the growing mind. Therefore, if the tendency to tease, tattle, suspect, accuse, etc., is allowed to develop into a habit, that habit will just as surely become crystalized into a weak, unprincipled character.

Let us remember, too, that these conditions which we are to provide for the children must also be given a three-sided consideration, that they may be complementary to the threefold character of the educational process.

Since it is through their *physical* environment that children receive their first impressions, it is in that direction that our attention should first be turned. That their impressions may be of a positive nature, their surroundings should be bright and attractive, toward the production of which there is no greater agent than color. The possession of color alone, however, should never recommend an object as educationally valuable to a conscientious teacher, for many beautifully colored pictures are utterly devoid of moral or intellectual worth, while the negative tone of some is positively injurious.

Here I am forcibly reminded of one of the many primary school-rooms which I have had occasion to visit. The teacher who presided over this particular room was very conscientious ; hence she put forth every possible effort to possess a bright, attractive, and interesting school-room, and naturally resorted to pictures as the easiest procurable aid. But in her eagerness to produce a pleasant color effect she had wholly ignored the *moral* expression of these, and consequently there were many illustrations of negative ideas and actions decorating her walls.

Among others there was a large panel representing a ferocious dog chasing a frightened cat up the trunk of a tree. While it is quite impossible definitely to estimate the extent of the damage wrought by that picture, it could not have failed to encourage the destructive tendencies of which many of the pupils were doubtless possessed. As I write, my mental eye plainly sees a mischievous urchin gazing at that picture with a glowing face, while with all his little untrained heart he cries : " Sic 'em ! " Surely he would lose no time in realizing such fun when the opportunity was afforded him by the meeting of his intended canine and feline victims.

On the other hand sensitive, timid natures must have recoiled from the picture, while it emphasized indifference in those children who were naturally unconcerned about the comfort of others.

That was but one of a number of morally injurious pictures in one school-room, for others were very untruthful in expression, while all, by the very fact of their presence, bore the seal of the teacher's approval.

At another time I heard a teacher express her desire to possess for her school-room a picture of two well-known actresses. The picture in question was valuable only for its brightness of color, and could it have excited any feeling at all in a child that feeling would have been a desire for gaudy self-ornamentation.

Recently one of my own friends called my attention to a very pretty copy of a painting called "Baby's First Adventure," which had been issued by some advertising firm. It represented a little child holding in its hands a large hat with which it was about to capture two birds which, unconscious of their danger, were perched upon the edge of a bowl whose bread and milk contents had enticed them thither. It was very sweet in its expression of innocence, but the desire to take the freedom of a fellow-creature so strongly pervaded the picture as utterly to spoil its spirit; yet my very intelligent friend believed that it might prove a valuable addition to my kindergarten decorations. To older children this picture could have done no moral injury, but to a little child whose natural love for animals had not yet been cultivated into a desire to protect them, it could only have aroused a desire to be in the pictured baby's place.

Another fact regarding pictures which it is well to remember is this: Though bright colors attract the child, it is the expression of spirit in the picture that *holds* his attention. For however beautiful a combination of colors may be, no child will look at it long unless it is expressive or strongly suggestive of some interesting phase of life with which he is familiar. For this reason pictures should be introduced into the school-room gradually, the children becoming thoroughly acquainted with them one after another, and the idea of each as it is adjusted should form a link in a logical chain of thought relating to the children's work. If many are put up at one time the children will be deeply impressed by none, because of the multiplicity of ideas represented. Again, if the ideas represented form a mere conglomerate mass, bearing absolutely no relation to one another, the young minds will be overwhelmed by their complexity, and the teacher will have lost an excellent opportunity to assist them in a clear, connected, and logical thinking.

We know, too, that cleanliness is an essential element in the physical environment of children. The school-room should be clean and orderly, with a definitely understood place for everything and everybody. No alien article should be allowed to interfere with the harmony of the whole. If a piece of furniture is broken it should be removed and mended as soon as possible, lest through constant association with its negative condition the children become careless and indifferent to inharmony and incompleteness. And as corporeal cleanliness promotes spiritual purity we should insist that the children themselves keep their hands and faces free from any foreign matter while in the school-room.

With these improved physical conditions firmly established, we may next proceed to the moral and intellectual atmosphere with which we surround our pupils.

The physical element of his surroundings appeals to the child's feeling, thereby creating sensations and impressions, while the moral element appeals to his will and excites him to action. It is action, therefore, with which we have next to deal. Of our own we should be careful, as deaf children are nothing if not imitative. Being deprived of the chief avenue to understanding, they instinctively imitate in order to comprehend. We must, therefore, be guilty of no act for which we would reprove a child. And as all children are quick to notice any laxity in both manners and actions, we should school ourselves to be prompt and accurate in all that we do and promise to do. Precision should also be demanded of the pupils in their work, as accuracy in deed leads to accuracy in thought, and few things are more promotive of love for truth.

"Feeling is force seeking action," and as deaf children are very demonstrative in their expressions of affection, we should give their otherwise wasted energy a natural and wholesome outlet by requiring such small services of

them as they are capable of, thereby strengthening their characters and leading them to feel and understand that service is the truest expression of love.

Emotions of sympathy are aroused through no other sense so much as through that of hearing. It is small wonder, then, that this feeling is so slow of development in the deaf. It is this lack of sympathy which emphasizes their destructive tendencies. We must therefore use every other available means to develop this quality which is existent—if only potentially—in all human souls.

In this beautiful springtime when all nature breathes gladness, and all life is joyous, the child's love for his teacher and his fondness for flowers naturally culminate in gathering the one for the other. Great care should be exercised that this perfectly legitimate act does not degenerate into one of destruction, by plucking the flowers up by the roots, or permitting them to wither uncared for after being gathered. All such negative actions should be promptly corrected by replanting such roots as have been torn from the earth, and by prompt attention to cut flowers.

In all efforts at moral training it is well to call the least possible attention to the faults of any one, and to bear in mind that the surest way to obliterate a weakness is to plant and cherish in its stead a corresponding strength.

So much for the moral atmosphere of the school-room. Now let us turn to the intellectual side, still remembering that it is the character of the pupil which we are molding from the beginning.

Inasmuch as the deaf child must gain every word of language from his teacher, the latter is entirely responsible for the nature of his pupils' vocabulary. Text-books are naturally used as guides. But when these introduce words that are entirely unnecessary and wholly unfit for the impressionable mind of a young child, the teacher should feel free to exercise his own discretion and use a substitute.

If the children are at all impressed by their lessons—and we hope that they are—imagine the condition in which their minds must emerge from an hour's study or drill in such sentences as these :

There lived in the city of C. a deaf-mute boy. . . . He was naturally a bad boy. He had a bad countenance and eye. He once pushed a little girl into a well. . . . At another time he set a house on fire, and it was burnt down. . . . He fought the other boys. He was a thief. He was lazy. He told lies. Great effort was made to reform him in vain. He left school. He became a vagabond.

Surely here is room for reform.

The question which now arises is how to begin. Before all else co-operation is absolutely necessary. For a few among many teachers to attempt a reform among pupils whom they have in their charge for only several hours each day would be almost as futile as would be the planting of a few flowers in a garden of flourishing weeds. We must unite hands and minds and pledge ourselves to help these children to overcome as far as possible the negative side of their natures. The good and positive must win in the end, and toward this result perseverance based on sound judgment will do much.

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THE PARIS CONGRESS OF 1900.

The "International Congress for the Study of Questions of Education and Assistance of the Deaf," which met in Paris August 6, 7, and 8, 1900, was one of a series of more than a hundred and fifty congresses relating to a great variety of educational, philanthropic and professional subjects, held under the auspices of the French Republic in connection with the Universal Exposition of 1900. A special building called the

“Palace of Congresses” had been erected for this purpose within the Exposition grounds, and there were often several different congresses going on in the building at the same time. Members of congresses were admitted to the Exposition free of charge on their days of meeting, and in going to Paris and returning home travelled at half price on the railroads of France.

The Congress in the interest of the deaf consisted of two sections, one composed of hearing persons and the other of deaf persons. The Hearing Section numbered more than a hundred members, the Deaf Section more than two hundred.* A few persons had been appointed as official delegates from the governments of various countries of Europe and America, but anybody was admitted to membership who was willing to pay the required fee of two dollars. A large majority of both sections were Frenchmen, and a majority of the Hearing Section were French and Belgian ecclesiastics and brothers and sisters of religious orders. Under the able leadership of the Rev. Father STOCKMANS, of Belgium, Superior General of the Brothers of Charity, these ecclesiastics and members of religious orders acted with entire unanimity and cast the deciding vote on every question that came before the Section.

America was represented in the Hearing Section of the Congress by President GALLAUDET, the Rev. Dr. THOMAS GALLAUDET, Dr. GRAHAM BELL, Professor HALL, of Gallaudet College, and the editor of the *Annals*. There were also two delegates from Mexico—Mr. ADOLFO HUET and Mr. DANIEL GARCIA. Mrs. B. ST. JOHN ACKERS, of Huntley Manor, Gloucester, and Mr. JOHN BABBETT, of the Margate School, were the only representatives from England.

*A list of the members of the Hearing Section, printed before the Congress met, contains 150 names, and of the Deaf Section 220 names—but a good many of the persons named, especially in the Hearing Section, were not actually present. On the other hand some persons were present whose names do not appear in the printed list.

Other prominent members were Dr. LADREIT DE LACHARRIÈRE, physician of the Paris Institution for thirty years and President of the Committee of Organization of the Congress; Mr. CLAVEAU, Mr. BAGUER, Dr. ST. HILAIRE, and Dr. BONNEFOY, of Paris; Mr. HEIDSIEK, of Breslau; Mr. OSTROGRADSKY, of St. Petersburg; Mr. FERRERI, of Siena; Dr. MONACI, of Genoa; Mr. PERINI, of Milan; Dr. SCHWENDT, of Basle; Mr. METZGER, of Geneva; Mr. FORCHHAMMER, of Nyborg, Denmark; Mr. BECH, of Copenhagen, and Mr. NORDIN, of Venersborg, Sweden. It was much regretted that the director and instructors of the National Institution at Paris, who are the recognized leaders in the education of the deaf in France, felt compelled, for personal reasons, to hold themselves aloof from all participation in the Congress. The directors and instructors of the two other National Institutions of France—those at Bordeaux and Chambéry—were also conspicuous by their absence.

In the Deaf Section valuable papers were presented from several Americans, including Messrs. VEDITZ, ROBINSON, FOX, GEORGE, HILL, DAVIDSON, MANN, HODGSON, GRADY, KOEHLER, HANSON, SMITH, and CLOUD, and Mrs. BALIS and Mrs. SEARING, but only Messrs. SHERIDAN, HODGMANN, and WASHBURNE, of Minnesota, and Mr. ALEXANDER,* of New York, were present from the United States. Other prominent members of this section were Messrs. DUSUZEAC, GAILLARD, COCHEFER, DESMAREST, NÉE, and GRAFF, of Paris; Mr. MERCIER, of Epernay; Mr. WATZULIK, of Altenburg, Saxony; Mr. BIRNBAUM, of Hanover; Messrs. BRILL and TOIFFL, of Vienna; Mr. MICHELONI, of Rome; Messrs. SALZGEBER and RICCA, of Geneva, and Mr. TITZE, of Karlskrona, Sweden.

*Mr. Alexander presented to the Congress an oil painting of Dr. Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet which Dr. Gallaudet's sons, who were called to the platform during the ceremony of presentation, regard as an excellent likeness.

On the day before the first regular meeting of the Congress a pleasant reception for the members was held at the house of Dr. LACHARRIÈRE, under whose direction the arrangements for the organization of the Congress had been made, and a banquet was given by the *Alliance Silencieuse*, one of the societies of the deaf in Paris, in commemoration of the laws of the convention establishing the schools for the deaf in France as national institutions. At this banquet President GALLAUDET, Dr. THOMAS GALLAUDET, and Mr. HEIDSIEK were guests of honor.

For the first regular meeting of the Congress, held on Monday morning, August 6, the two sections were united. Addresses of welcome were given by Dr. LACHARRIÈRE, Mr. DUSUZEAU, Mr. BAGUER, and others, and responses were made by delegates from foreign countries. President GALLAUDET, Dr. BELL, and Mr. GARCIA spoke for America. The two sections then separated for the election of officers, and, except for a farewell reunion at the end of the Congress, they henceforth constituted separate and distinct bodies.

The selection of officers was conducted in accordance with French custom. In the Hearing Section Dr. LACHARRIÈRE, President of the Committee of Organization, nominated the Vice-President, Secretaries, and Treasurer of that committee for corresponding offices in the Section, and some one else nominated Dr. LACHARRIÈRE as President. These nominations were unanimously adopted. A number of Vice-Presidents from France and of "Presidents of Honor" from other countries were added. The United States received the compliment of two "Presidents of Honor," Dr. BELL and Dr. GALLAUDET. In the Deaf Section officers were elected in similar fashion.

In the invitations to the Congress it was stated that, while the official language would be French, members might use any language they preferred. As a matter of fact all the papers presented and all the remarks made in

the Hearing Section (with a single exception) were in French. The foreign members, whose knowledge of the language was generally not perfect, were thus placed at some disadvantage, but by giving close attention they were able to follow the general sense of the discussions and to take an active part in them. The French members, with the usual courtesy of their nation, listened to the defective grammar and barbarous pronunciation of the foreigners without the slightest indication of the amusement they must sometimes have felt. In the Deaf Section all the proceedings were carried on in the sign-language.

After the organization of the Hearing Section was effected, President GALLAUDET brought before it an important matter in some carefully prepared remarks of which the following is a translation :

Mr. President :

I sincerely hope this Congress will not consider, much less adopt, any resolution in regard to methods of instruction.

Twenty years ago the Congress of Milan, of which I was a member, committed the egregious blunder of making such a declaration. I call it a blunder—one of those that Talleyrand regarded as worse than a crime—because it was based on absolute, though not intentional, misrepresentation.

A few days after the adjournment of the Milan Congress, the *London Times*, in a labored editorial, told the world that “no more representative body could have been collected than that which at Milan declared for oral teaching for the deaf, and for nothing but oral teaching.”

To show the absurdity of this statement it is only necessary to refer to the records of the Congress, which show that of the 164 voting members, 87, or a clear majority of 10, were from Italy; that 46 of these were from the two schools of Milan; that 56 delegates were from France, giving these two countries seven-eighths of the Congress; that the schools of the British Empire were represented by only 8 delegates; that the American delegates, 5 only in number, stood for a greater constituency of pupils than all the other 159 delegates taken together; that these five Americans, representing more than six thousand pupils, were outvoted nearly ten to one by the forty-six teachers from the two schools of Milan; that for Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, Austria, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, Spain, and Portugal, countries in which

thousands of deaf children were then being educated, only eight delegates appeared. The only delegates to the Milan Congress who came with credentials authorizing them to act in a representative capacity were the five American members, who were accredited by a Conference of Principals of the schools of the United States held only a few weeks before the meeting at Milan.

And so it appears that the Milan Congress was *not* a representative body. And yet its declarations have been quoted everywhere for twenty years by advocates of the pure oral method, as though they were of equal weight with the judicial decision of a court of final appeal.

And this has done infinite harm to the cause of the education of the deaf in ways I need not take time to rehearse.

Mr. President, this Congress is no more representative than was that of Milan. Under the broad invitation of the Committee any teacher, nay, more, any person interested in the education of the deaf, has had the privilege of enrollment as an active member on the payment of ten francs. And each one so enrolled is entitled to vote.

A little reflection, will, I am sure, make it clear that no Congress, so constituted, ought to assume to pass judgment, by vote, on serious professional questions.

The vote at Milan settled nothing, for the controversy as to methods has gone on ever since, and is by no means ended to-day. Nor will any vote this Congress may pass be final.

Professional questions can only be determined in the schools.

Experienced instructors bring forward their views and relate the results of their labors, and exert influence over their professional brethren, greater or less, according to their standing, the cogency of their reasoning, and the conclusive character of their results.

Thus and only thus can the practice of methods be modified at such congresses as this.

I have been a careful student of methods and have tried to be an unprejudiced observer of results for more than forty years, and I hope, at the proper time, to present my views to the Congress.

If these views shall seem reasonable, and if my colleagues, in any considerable number, shall be disposed to accept my advice, as based on sound principles of pedagogic science, and, later on, effect certain modifications in the conduct of their schools, I shall be gratified. But not because *my* opinions find favor, but because that which after long and careful search I find to be the *truth* commends itself to others, *as such*.

Demonstrated truth needs no support by resolutions.

And that which is not truth can never be made such by the vote of any Congress.

Mr. President, with a view of saving this Congress from a repetition of the blunder committed at Milan twenty years ago, I offer the following declaration which I hope will be adopted without dissent :

The Congress, not being in any true sense a representative assembly,

but being constituted by the voluntary and free action of individuals, declares the taking of votes on questions of method to be inexpedient, and hereby orders that no motions for such votes shall be entertained by the presiding officer.

The President of the Section seemed not quite to understand the point made by President Gallaudet that the Congress was not truly representative, and to regard his proposition as a reflection upon the intelligence of its members. He said that the Congress was perfectly competent to decide all questions relating to the education and welfare of the deaf, and that to discuss questions and not vote upon them would be absurd. Then, without giving anyone else an opportunity to express an opinion or submitting the proposition to a vote, he declared that the proposition was rejected by the Congress and adjourned the meeting until afternoon.

The first subject that came before the Hearing Section of the Congress in the afternoon was that of the organization of schools: "Should schools for the deaf be considered as establishments of benevolence or of instruction?" This seems a simple question to us in America, and one that is easily answered; but in Europe it involves matters of religion and politics that are seldom discussed without acrimony.

As soon as the question was presented, Mr. CLAVEAU moved that it be stricken from the programme. This led to a spirited discussion which lasted an hour and a half, Mr. CLAVEAU and Father STOCKMANS leading the forces which desired the suppression of the question, while Mr. METZGER, Mr. NORDIN, Mr. BAGUER, and the President urged the importance of considering it dispassionately and adopting a resolution upon it. Finally, after vain attempts to agree upon some kind of a compromise, it was voted by a large majority to strike the question from the programme.

The remainder of the afternoon was devoted to the

question of advanced instruction for such of the deaf as might be capable of receiving it. A history of the secondary and higher education of the deaf in America and its valuable results was presented by the editor of the *Annals*, and a discussion followed upon the desirability of making similar provision for the deaf of other countries. In the negative it was urged that the deaf are inferior in intellectual capacity to hearing persons, and so incapable of receiving higher instruction; that, as most of them are found in the lower classes of society, a higher education would take them out of the sphere where they properly belong; and that it would unfit them for the practical duties of life. Happily these pessimistic views were not entertained by a majority of the members, and a resolution was adopted favoring the establishment of high classes for competent pupils in existing schools. This was not going as far as was desired by the advocates of higher education, but it was a decided advance on the action of the Milan Congress, which took the ground that inasmuch as elementary instruction was not fully provided for in Europe nothing should be attempted in the way of higher education.

At the opening of Tuesday's session, after the reading of the minutes, the President of the Section put on record a vigorous protest against the action of the day previous in removing the first question from the programme.

He also presented a request from the Deaf Section of the Congress that the two sections should meet together, before the final adjournment, for the adoption of resolutions on questions that had come before the Congress. After remarks by the President in opposition to this request it was voted that the request should not be granted.

The rest of the morning and a large part of the afternoon was devoted to a consideration of the results obtained by the oral method. President GALLAUDET read a

paper entitled "What is Speech Worth to the Deaf?" in which he brought forward testimony on this subject from teachers, intimate friends, and casual acquaintances of the deaf, and from the deaf themselves, and reached the conclusion that for twenty-two per cent. of the deaf speech is worth what it costs; that for fifteen per cent. it is of no use; that for the remainder its value is, by no means as great as is claimed by the advocates of the pure oral method; that for at least fifty per cent. "the game is not worth the candle," and that for the best development of all the deaf, a combined system should be employed.*

Mr. HEIDSIEK read a paper entitled "To What Experiences has the Pure Oral Method Led?" He set forth the unsatisfactory results, from his point of view, of that method, viz., the development of an imperfect sign-language, the unintelligible speech and speech-reading, the defective general education, and the helpless condition of many of the graduates of oral schools. He summed up his conclusions in the following sentences:

"1. An experience of long years has proved that the pure oral method is applicable to deaf-mutes not properly so called, namely, to those who possess some remains of hearing and speech.

"2. For real deaf-mutes, on the contrary, especially those of feeble powers and moderate ability, the application of a combined system is desirable."

The papers of President Gallaudet and Mr. Heidsiek were the only elaborate ones on this subject, but they were followed by a long discussion. Mr. FORCHHAMMER, Mr. NORDIN, and Mr. METZGER expressed themselves as in general accord with the views of President Gallaudet and Mr. Heidsiek; Mr. FERRERI, Mr. STOCKMANS, Mr. PERINI, Mr. BAGUER, and others advocated the oral method for all

* President Gallaudet read his paper in French, but printed translations in English, German, and Italian were placed in the hands of the members of the Congress.

pupils. No new and unfamiliar arguments were brought forward on either side, except that Mr. FORCHHAMMER referred incidentally to the difference of different languages in respect to their adaptability to speech and speech-reading. In the English language, for instance, he said that so many of the positions of the organs of speech are invisible, being inside the mouth, and far back, that English is the most difficult of European languages for speech-reading. He thought the development of modern languages tended to make their words shorter and more concise, and therefore easier to speak and hear, but more difficult to read from the lips. For instance, the Anglo-Saxon verb *habaidédeima* has been contracted into the English word *had*, which is shorter and easier to speak and hear, but presents far fewer visible signs to the eye of the deaf speech-reader. The discussion was calm and courteous throughout, and at its close the Section was offered the opportunity of choosing between two series of resolutions. The first one was as follows :

The Congress, considering that deaf children are not all upon the same plane of intellectual and physical aptitudes for the acquisition of speech and speech-reading, is of the opinion that the instruction of these children should not be limited to the rigorous application of a single method, but that the method should be chosen according to the aptitude of the pupil, and that all means should be employed which can contribute to the best intellectual and moral development of each individual.

The Congress, considering the value of speech and speech-reading, is of the opinion that all deaf children should be taught speech on entering school, and that this instruction should be continued with all those who succeed in it.

These resolutions received the votes of the members from the United States,* Germany, Switzerland, Sweden, and Denmark, but they were voted down by the large majority of persons present from France, Belgium, and Italy, and the following resolutions were adopted in their stead :

*Dr. Bell was not present when the vote was taken.

The Congress, considering the incontestable superiority of speech over signs in restoring the deaf-mute to society and giving him a more perfect knowledge of language, declares its adhesion to the decisions of the Milan Congress.

It expresses the opinion (1) that institutions and teachers of the deaf should exert their efforts towards the establishment of the school books and teaching material necessary to the instruction of the deaf; (2) that the books and material formed in any school should be obtainable at cost price by other schools.

President GALLAUDET moved that, in order to bring the resolutions adopted into accord with the actual fact, the words "Hearing Section of the Congress" be substituted for the word "Congress" in all places where the latter occurred. This motion was defeated.

Other subjects discussed by the Section on Tuesday and Wednesday, much more briefly than those already mentioned, were industrial training, kindergartens, compulsory education, auricular instruction, school-books, assistance of pupils after leaving school, and collaboration between physicians and teachers. The subject of compulsory education brought up the same political and religious questions that were involved in the discussion of organization on Monday, and led to a spirited debate, in which Father STOCKMANS, of Belgium, and Dr. BONNEFOY, a young French Doctor of Laws who has interested himself deeply in questions relating to the welfare of the deaf, were the leading disputants. A compromise resolution was finally adopted without dissent, to the effect that the government ought to furnish the necessary means for the primary and industrial instruction of all pupils.

Other resolutions adopted by the Section expressed the opinion: (1) that the semi-deaf should be separated from other pupils as far as possible, and should be educated by the auricular method; (2) that all pupils should receive industrial training, and that after leaving school they should be assisted in obtaining situations; (3) that teachers and physicians in schools for the deaf should give one another mutual aid and support.

Mr. JOSEPH MEDVED, of Zagreb, Croatia, presented statistics relating to the deaf in Croatia and Slavonia. Dr. BELL presented statistics relating to the education of the deaf in the United States, and President GALLAUDET presented statistics relating to the changes in method in the United States during the last ten years, and also statistics of schools in the United States, compiled by Mr. OLOF HANSON, of Faribault, Minnesota.

The Section then adjourned for a final congratulatory reunion with the Deaf Section, in which resolutions complimentary to the officers were adopted and brief farewell addresses were made.

As the time of the editor of the *Annals* was wholly occupied with the Hearing Section of the Congress, he did not have the privilege of attending the sessions of the Deaf Section, and regrets that he can give no adequate report of its proceedings. The members of this Section whom he met socially impressed him as persons of marked ability and sincere devotion to the welfare of the deaf, and the programme of its meetings included a wide range of important subjects, such as the results of instruction in different countries and by different methods, the instruction of the less intelligent deaf, elementary, industrial, and higher education, the deaf as teachers, the organization of schools, religious and benevolent work among the adult deaf, employments, marriage, legal relations, etc., etc. The resolutions adopted by the Section on the question of methods of instruction were almost identical with those that were rejected by the Hearing Section, the only difference being that a clause was added to the effect that where oral instruction does not prove successful pupils should be taught by signs.

On Thursday evening a brilliant banquet was held at the Hotel Continental. It was attended by about twenty-five members of the Hearing Section and seventy-five of the Deaf Section. A few addresses were made

by Dr. LACHARRIÈRE, Mr. DUSUZEAU, and others, but the occasion was mainly social.

On Thursday morning an elegant breakfast was given by Mr. DÉSIÉ GIRAUD, Director of the National Institution at Paris, at which some of the leading members of the Congress from America, Russia, Italy, Sweden and Denmark, and several of the instructors of the National Institution at Paris, were present. A confidential explanation was given by Mr. GIRAUD of the reasons which prevented the director and instructors of the National Institution from taking part in the Congress, and various questions relating to the welfare of the deaf, including that of the time and place of holding the next International Congress, were informally discussed. The American delegates proposed Washington, and Mr. OSTROGRADSKY, St. Petersburg, as the place for the Congress. At a meeting held at the Paris Institution two days later it was agreed, on the suggestion of Dr. BELL, that the initiative steps toward the calling of the next Congress, for which the year 1907 was regarded as a suitable date, should be taken, when the proper time comes, through the medium of an international publication which is to be established in the near future by the Volta Bureau.

E. A. F.

ECHOES OF THE PARIS CONGRESS OF 1900.

TO ONE who took part in the Milan Congress of 1880, and has been a careful observer of the modification of views as to methods among teachers of the deaf throughout the world which has been taking place since that time, the spirit and action of the Hearing Section of the Paris Congress were disappointing.

The person who may be said to have controlled the Congress was an eminent medical man of Paris, Dr.

Ladreit de Lacharrière, for thirty years the attending physician of the National Institution for Deaf-Mutes in that city. Readers of the *Annals* will remember that this gentleman was charged by the French Government with the duty of making the necessary preliminary arrangements for the Congress, and that his prominent assistants on the Committee of Organization were, like himself, physicians. Dr. Lacharrière is a man of the highest social and professional standing in Paris, an accomplished scholar and a courteous gentleman. His personal qualities and his education fitted him to be an ideal presiding officer, and he would have been such for our Congress but for his pronounced partisanship for the pure oral method, which led him to make rulings and deny requests on several occasions in a way that seemed very unjust to those who were not of his party. Notice of some of these will be taken later on in this article.

This attitude of the President of the Congress, in which he was sustained by the Franco-Belgian majority of the Hearing Section of the Congress, secured on every test question action favorable to the cause of pure oralism. Doubtless the partisans of this cause, the world over, will claim that the Congress of Paris of 1900 fully and unequivocally endorsed and reaffirmed the action of the Congress of Milan favoring the pure oral method to the exclusion of all others. That this claim has no foundation in fact, and that the Congress of Paris, by a large majority, declared itself in favor of a combined system of education for the deaf, I will make plainly evident before the conclusion of this article.

I will, however, first give some instances of Dr. Lacharrière's disposition to deny to the combined system the full and fair consideration before the Congress which its advocates had a right to ask and expect.

Having taken great pains to prepare a paper on the question, "What is Speech Worth to the Deaf?" I asked

of Dr. Lacharrière, several weeks before the meeting of the Congress, that the deaf members might be invited to be present when this paper was read, and said that, while I was reading it in French, Professor Fay would give an interpretation of it in the sign-language. It was my purpose also to have translations of the paper printed in English, German, and Italian, thus securing to every member of the entire Congress a full understanding of its contents as it was being delivered. I felt also that Professor Fay's interpretation of the paper in the sign-language, as developed in America, would be an object lesson of interest to all. Dr. Lacharrière declined my request in this matter, in spite of the fact that it was seconded by Messrs. Dusuzeau and Gaillard, President and Secretary of the Deaf Section of the Congress. Yet the two sections of the Congress held two joint meetings without difficulty. When I came to read my paper, although a printed copy had been in the Doctor's hands for weeks, and he had given me no intimation that its reading would occupy too much time, he stopped me when I was half through, saying I could not be allowed to read the entire paper. I was compelled to omit certain important portions.

Dr. Lacharrière would not even put to vote a proposed rule of procedure which I offered at the opening session of the Congress, but arbitrarily declared that the proposition was rejected by the Congress.

A formal request was presented by the Deaf Section to the Hearing Section that a joint meeting should be held for the consideration of and action on resolutions which might express the opinion of the Congress as a whole. This request was so earnestly opposed by the President at a meeting of the Hearing Section as to render its refusal, considering in whose hands the numerical majority of the Section lay, a foregone conclusion. The explanation of this is not far to seek. The members of the Deaf Section far

outnumbered those of the other. They would have been able, therefore, in a joint meeting, to secure the sanction of "the Congress" as a whole for any resolutions on which they were united. Now, as the Deaf Section adopted, without dissent, the resolutions as to methods which the Hearing Section rejected, we have proof that the opinion of "the Congress," taken as a united body, was by a decided majority opposed to "pure oralism" and in favor of a combination of methods.

Dr. Lacharrière, in a correspondence with me after the adjournment of the Congress, the object of which will be disclosed later on, gave me a copy of a letter he addressed to the Minister of the Interior on the opening day of our meetings, in which he alluded to the fact that "the Congress had assembled with a membership of upwards of four hundred," this aggregate including, of course, the deaf members as well as the hearing. Having, then, this official definition of "the Congress" from its official head, I think I am justified in saying that a motion which I made to characterize the votes of the Hearing Section *as such* ought to have been sustained by the President as a point of order well taken. I think I may also claim that the unanimous action of the Deaf Section in opposition to pure oralism, carrying with it, as it did, a large majority of the united body, may be taken as the opinion of "the Congress."

The opposition of Dr. Lacharrière to joint meetings of the two sections of the Congress was not the only evidence of his unwillingness to show consideration to the wishes or the opinions of the deaf members. Toward the close of our sessions Mr. Dusuzeau, President of the Deaf Section, handed me a copy of the resolutions concerning methods which his Section had adopted. This paper bore the signatures of the officers of the Section, and some twenty or thirty of its leading members. I was requested to present the paper to the Hearing Section for

the information of its members. I showed the document to Dr. Lacharrière and asked that he would give me the floor at his convenience. To my amazement he refused to allow the message from the Deaf Section to be presented to our Section. Comment is unnecessary.

In this connection it will not be out of place for me to call attention to the membership of the Deaf Section. I mingled much with the deaf members of the Congress, and found among them many I met during my tour in Europe in 1897. The average of intelligence was high. At the closing banquet, attended by seventy-five deaf members and twenty-five hearing members of the Congress, the deaf showed themselves to be the peers of the hearing. Resolutions from the body of which they were members are entitled to the highest respect. To deny their reasonable request that, in a matter so vital to the interest of their class as the question of the methods by which it should be educated, their voices should be given equal weight with those of their teachers, was one of those acts of injustice which generally do much more execution at the breech than at the muzzle. A large majority of them were educated orally and have received the best that pure oralism can give them. They stand as a unit against the declarations of the Milan Congress, and the feeble echo of the Hearing Section of the Paris Congress. As one of the few individual members of that Section who voted against its "declaration," I am proud to stand on the platform of my respected friends of the Deaf Section, for I feel that being with them I am one of the real majority of the Congress, and better still that I am on the side of right and of sound reason.

I spoke at the beginning of this article of "the modification of views as to methods among teachers of the deaf throughout the world which has been taking place" during the last twenty years. Evidences of this came to me from several sources, aside from the significant votes

of the delegates from Germany, Switzerland, Sweden, and Denmark in the Congress in favor of a combined system ; votes which, if given their representative value, would count heavily against pure oralism.

It is well known that after the meeting of the Milan Congress, the National Institution at Paris was brought into the ranks of pure oralism under the official leadership of Mr. Claveau, a representative of the French Government at Milan, who then became a zealous "convert." It is not so well known that the learned and venerable Professor Vaisse, for many years Director of the Paris Institution, who was also at the Milan Congress, was opposed to the complete renunciation of the methods of De l'Épée which was ordered by official authority in the school which he had established a century and more before. From time to time, as I have visited Paris since 1880, I have been assured by teachers of the Institution that the pure oral method fell far short, in many cases, of securing the results its promoters claimed for it, and during my visit of this year the Director and Censor of the Institution spoke earnestly of the insufficiency of the oral method, and said that their views were in practical accord with mine.

Dr. Monaci, Director of the Institution at Genoa, Italy, in a conversation I had with him in his own school, told me he was by no means an extreme oralist, and that many Italian teachers stood with him.

Dr. Elliott, of Margate, England, who was prevented by illness from attending the Paris Congress, and who has been an earnest promoter of oral teaching since his presence at Milan, wrote me regretting his absence and said in regard to methods : "One has had to face great difficulties, and to be content to do what one can. Something has been done, but nothing to come up to the sanguine expectations and desires of twenty years ago."

In this connection I will direct attention to the signifi-

cant conclusions of Mr. Heidsiek's paper, read at the Congress, which place this fearless representative of the German schools unequivocally in the ranks of the supporters of a combined system.

The most notable testimony which has come to me of late, and which I regret to say did not reach me in time to be incorporated into the paper presented to the Congress, is in a letter received only a few hours before the close of the Congress, from Mr. K. E. Göpfert, the well known instructor in the Institution at Leipsic. Some little time ago I wrote Mr. Göpfert, asking if my remembrance was strictly correct that, at my visit to the school of Heinicke in 1897, I was told that a considerable use of signs was made in the chapel exercises. I will quote from his letter of August 7, 1900. After expressing regret at his inability to attend the Paris Congress, he says : "I will answer the questions you asked me in your letter. They were put in regard to the fact that some use of signs is made in the religious instruction of our pupils. In giving this instruction the teachers are expected to make no use of *the sign-language*, and only, in order to make the religious instruction as vivid and effective as possible, the so-called 'mimic and action' are used to a considerable extent ; especially in the instruction of pupils of less mental capability.

"As regards the use of signs in our chapel, every word of an address is simultaneously accompanied by a sign, as it is quite hopeless to expect that our audience at such occasions as religious services could follow an address of some length by lip-reading. And for this it is felt as a great want of our present system that it does not give opportunity for the teachers as well as for the pupils to become acquainted with the sign-language in a proper way. Considered as language 'mimic and action' are, I might say, only unstamped gold (*ungemünztes Gold*). I promise to write you after the Hamburg Congress ex-

tensively about these questions. I am sure you will leave Paris quite satisfied with the results of the Congress, for, as I can judge from this distance, you will have seen that the seeds you have sown begin to grow up, and the time will come when your 'Message' (till now without answer from our part) will find its echo to the new world."

I will ask the readers of this article to consider with care the significance of the foregoing "echo" to the "Message" sent in 1897 by the officers of our College to "those interested in the education of the deaf in Europe," and I will inquire how far the school founded by the apostle of pure oralism in Germany is from the platform of a combined system, when in its chapel "every word of an address is simultaneously accompanied by a sign."

One incident of the Paris Congress remains to be spoken of. It was a matter of great regret to the members of the Congress that no representatives of the three National Institutions for Deaf-Mutes of France should have been present to take part in its proceedings. It seemed especially singular that an "International Congress for the Study of Questions of Education and Assistance of Deaf-Mutes" should be held in Paris, in the proceedings of which the director and instructors of the Paris Institution, the oldest in the world and of deserved renown, should take no part. The contrast between the hospitality shown at Milan in 1894 to the Congress by the Institutions for the Deaf in that city, and the absence of invitations to the Paris Congress to visit either of the schools in and near Paris, was most marked.

I hoped to receive some explanation of this surprising state of things which might be made public. A letter to Dr. Lecharriere, asking for any light he might be able to shed on the subject, was sent him a couple of weeks ago. Nothing more could be done but to wait for his reply. He retired from the office of physician on the 1st of January, on account of age, and a variety of other causes.

physician ; that the three National Institutions of France had originally sixteen members on the Committee of Organization for the Congress ; that at the first meeting of the Committee Director General* Monod and the *personnel* of the Paris Institution resigned their places ; that Mr. Monod forbade the officers of the three National Institutions of France from taking any part in the Congress ; and, finally, that he (Dr. Lacharrière) sent a letter to the Minister of the Interior on the first day of the Congress, informing him of its successful opening and expressing his great regret that the officers of the National Institutions should have been prohibited from taking part in the Congress.

A confidential explanation of the difficulty, which seemed to me a reasonable one, was given by Mr. Giraud, the Director of the Paris Institution. I think it likely the quick perception of the readers of the *Annals* will penetrate the mystery.

At the last session of the Congress statistics were handed in from several countries showing the progress of the education of the deaf during the past few years. I submitted a statement which gave a comparative view of the conditions in the United States in the years 1890 and 1900, as to the pure oral method and the combined system, which will, I think, be of interest to readers of the *Annals*. I will, however, give only some of the final figures here. These statistics are taken from the tables of the *Annals* as prepared from data furnished by the heads of the schools, and can easily be verified. I ought to say that I have counted the institutions at Philadelphia, Rochester, and Jacksonville, as combined-system schools, since they all carry on more or less instruction by manual methods.

In 1890 the Public Institutions were as follows :

Oral, 5 ; Manual, 4 ; Combined, 39 ; Total, 48.

*(*de l'assistance publique.*)

Pupils, Oral, 705; Manual, 169; Combined, 7,019; Total, 7,893.

In 1900 the Public Institutions were as follows:

Oral, 7; Manual, 5; Combined, 45; Total, 57.

Pupils, Oral, 685; Manual, 212; Combined, 9,863; Total, 10,760.

In 1890 the Day Schools, Denominational Schools, and Private Schools were as follows:

Oral, 13; Manual, 6; Combined, 4; Total, 23.

Pupils, Oral, 408; Manual, 123; Combined, 151; Total, 682.

In 1900 the Day Schools, Denominational Schools, and Private Schools were as follows:

Oral, 36; Manual, 3; Combined, 15; Total, 54.

Pupils, Oral, 619; Manual, 47; Combined, 516; Total, 1,182.

The percentages of increase of pupils in oral and combined-system schools are as follows:

In public oral schools from 1890–1900, no increase, but a diminution of 20 pupils.

In public combined schools from 1890–1900, an increase of 2,844, or forty per cent.

In all other oral schools an increase of fifty-one per cent.

In all other combined schools an increase of two hundred and forty-one per cent.

The decrease in the number of pupils in the public oral schools is in part accounted for by the fact that between 1890 and 1900 three oral schools, having 393 pupils in 1890, are now combined-system schools with 551 pupils.

The increase in the oral schools of all classes taken together is $17\frac{2}{10}$ per cent., and the increase in the combined-system schools is $44\frac{7}{10}$ per cent.

It will, perhaps, be expected that I should give in a final "echo of the Paris Congress," my estimate of its importance, and of the value of its proceedings and votes.

It certainly included in its membership many prominent and intelligent instructors of the deaf from many countries, and an equally large proportion of highly educated and justly influential deaf-mutes. In this respect it may be said to have been a representative body. But when the votes of the Hearing Section are considered it will be readily seen that the basis on which they were cast was no more representative than that of the Milan Congress.

In the papers presented, and the discussions which followed them, there was little to instruct the young teacher as to methods of primary education.

The votes of the Congress in regard to methods I have already discussed. I presented my views at the opening session as to the undesirability of taking such votes in such a body. I have already made the claim, which I think cannot be denied, that the vote of "the Congress" was in favor of a combined system by a large majority.

The Congress will be remembered by its members as an occasion which gave to many a valued opportunity to renew old acquaintances, and to all the equally precious privilege of making new friends among members of their chosen profession and those interested in its work.

I am sure all will agree with me that our sincere appreciation and acknowledgments are due to the distinguished President of the Congress and his assistants for the successful manner in which all arrangements were carried out, and for the many courtesies they extended to us during our stay in Paris.

EDWARD M. GALLAUDET,
President of Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

REPORT OF THE EDITOR OF THE ANNALS.

NANTUCKET, MASS., *June 25, 1900.*

Dr. JOB WILLIAMS,

*Chairman of the Committee of the Conference of
Superintendents and Principals of American
Schools for the Deaf.*

SIR: I respectfully submit the following summary of my receipts and disbursements as editor of the *American Annals of the Deaf* and treasurer of the Committee, from July 1, 1898, to June 25, 1900, inclusive:

RECEIPTS.

From balance on hand July 1, 1898.....	..	\$1,455	42
“ assessments on schools.....		3,148	80
“ individual subscriptions..	445	91
“ sale of back volumes and numbers....		85	50
“ advertisements.....		36	69
“ bank interest.....		44	41
“ sale of other publications.....		3	40
Total.....		\$5,220	13

DISBURSEMENTS.

For printing and engraving.....	\$1,828	71
“ salary of editor.....	1,000	00
“ articles of contributors.....	642	46
“ rent and care of office.....	122	50
“ travelling expenses.....	52	38
“ postage, expressage, stationery, etc....	176	51
“ back volumes.....	8	00
“ subscriptions returned.....	3	50
Balance on hand June 25, 1900.....	1,386	07
Total.....	\$5,220	13

I submit, also, for the examination of the Committee, the book containing the *Annals'* account with the editor and treasurer, which shows all receipts and disbursements in detail ; also, vouchers for all disbursements.

The funds belonging to the *Annals* are deposited in the American Security and Trust Company, of Washington, D. C., in the name of E. A. Fay, Treasurer. This company pays an annual interest of two per cent. I am told that the Seaman's Savings Bank, of New York City, is a wealthy bank with an excellent reputation for able and conservative management, and that it pays an annual interest of four per cent. I respectfully recommend that the treasurer be authorized to deposit a part of the *Annals* fund in the Seaman's Savings Bank, of New York City, retaining in the American Security and Trust Company, of Washington, only such a balance as may be needed for an active account. This arrangement would give us all the convenience that we at present enjoy from the deposit in Washington, and an interest of four per cent. instead of two for the larger part of our funds.

The schools contributing to the support of the *Annals* are nearly the same as reported at the meeting of the Committee at Columbus two years ago, and the amounts contributed are nearly the same. The only changes have been that the Arkansas and Mystic Oral Schools have withdrawn from the support of the *Annals* ; that the Missouri School has increased its contribution from \$12 to \$30 a year, and that the assessments of some of the other schools have been slightly raised or lowered by the increased or diminished number of pupils reported as present November 10, 1899, as compared with the number reported for the same date in 1897. Mr. Yates, Superintendent of the Arkansas Institute, hopes to be able to persuade the Board of Directors of that Institute soon to resume its share of the burden of support. The rate of assessment remains the same, viz., twenty cents a pupil.

The schools now contributing to the support of the *Annals*, and the annual payments of each school, are as follows :

<i>School.</i>	<i>Annual payment.</i>	<i>School.</i>	<i>Annual payment.</i>
Alabama.....	\$26 80	Mississippi... ..	\$20 40
American.....	36 00	Missouri	30 00
California.....	30 40	New England In-	
Central New York.	30 00	dustrial	4 60
Clarke.....	30 00	New Jersey.....	27 00
Colorado	15 40	New York	100 00
Columbia.....	50 00	North Carolina....	17 80
Georgia	36 80	Ohio	96 20
Halifax.....	19 20	Ontario.....	51 60
Illinois	105 00	Pennsylvania.....	100 00
Indiana.....	67 20	Pennsylvania Oral	15 80
Iowa	36 00	Rhode Island. ...	12 20
Kansas	8 00	St. Joseph's.....	74 20
Kentucky	66 40	South Carolina....	15 00
Le Contoulx St.		Tennessee	30 00
Mary's	32 60	Texas	50 00
Maine.....	15 40	Utah	13 80
Manitoba	11 80	Virginia.....	29 60
Maryland.....	24 00	West Virginia....	16 00
Maryland Colored.	7 60	Western New York	33 80
Michigan	75 00	Western Pennsyl-	
Minnesota	12 00	vania	36 60

At present the *Annals* is published six times a year, appearing in the months of January, February, April, June, September, and November. Each number contains at least 64 pages, but some numbers contain more than that. I respectfully recommend that, beginning with 1901, the *Annals* be published quarterly during the school year, making five volumes a year, as the Association desire; and a separate issue in the month of January,

March, May, September, and November, and that the number of pages in each issue be increased to at least 80. The advantages of the proposed change are: (1) it would be more convenient for the editor; (2) it would afford an equal amount of reading matter at a slightly reduced cost; (3) it would make the *Annals* alternate with the *Association Review*, enabling the two periodicals to avoid the duplication of the same matter, if they so desired; and (4) it would give persons who receive both periodicals a magazine once a month during the school year instead of two magazines in some months and none in others.

Respectfully submitted.

E. A. FAY,
Editor and Treasurer.

AN APOLOGY.

We have to apologize for the unusual delay in the issue of the present number of the *Annals* and also for the absence from it of several important articles, both caused by the loss of "copy" in the mail. This "copy," including a report of the Conference of Principals held at the Alabama Institute last summer, prepared by Mr. Augustus Rogers, Superintendent of the Kentucky School; a report of the meeting of Section Sixteen of the National Educational Association held at Charleston, South Carolina, prepared by Mr. J. R. Dobyns, Superintendent of the Mississippi Institution; a description of Brown Hall, the new school building of the Michigan School, by Mr. Thomas P. Clarke, and several other articles, were sent in a sealed envelope, fully prepaid as first-class matter, from the editor's summer home on Nantucket Island, Massachusetts, addressed to Gibson Brothers, the printers of the *Annals*, at Washington. The Post-Office Department is still engaged in an endeavor to trace the missing package, which we hope may yet be successful. If it is not, we

hope the authors of the lost articles may be able to reproduce them in whole or in part, so that in either case they may appear in the November *Annals*, but it seems best not to delay the publication of the present number any longer.

E. A. F.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

American School.—Miss Mary A. Mann, a teacher since 1855, and Miss Mary J. Noyes resigned at the end of the school year, the former to enjoy a well-earned rest, and the latter to be married. Miss Mary H. Mansfield, Miss Alma L. Chapin, and Miss Katharine D. Partridge have been appointed teachers, and Miss Anna O. Munsell, from the Boston Sloyd School, has been appointed a teacher of Sloyd.

The new primary building will be occupied at the opening of the term. A central steam plant has been constructed. The old shop buildings, the first part of which was built in 1822, have been torn down, and the play-house arranged for a temporary substitute. There is also a new laundry fitted up with modern machinery.

Clarke School.—Miss Julia Grosvenor and Miss Mary Everett have resigned their positions as teachers, Miss Grosvenor for a year's rest and Miss Everett to be married. Their places are filled by Miss N. L. Upham and Miss Mary C. Whitney. Miss Helen Brooks, teacher of gymnastics, has resigned to enter upon the study of medicine. Her place is filled by Miss Anna Jaquith. Miss Anna Wahlberg, teacher of Sloyd, has resigned to take further training. Her place is filled by the appointment of Miss Lena Garfield.

Colorado School.—Miss Sparrow has resigned to teach in the Western New York Institution, Miss Chapin to teach in the American School at Hartford, and Miss Powell to marry Mr. C. J. Wright, a prosperous young business man of Colorado Springs. Two of the vacancies have been filled by the election of Miss Hermine Haupt, late of the Kentucky School, and Miss Alice Ely, late of the Alabama School.

Columbia Institution.—Two highly valued teachers have resigned their positions: Miss Mary T. G. Gordon, after forty years' service, to rest from her labors, and Miss May Martin, after five years' service, to be married. Miss Gordon is succeeded by Miss Emma Pope, late of the Pennsylvania Institution, and Miss Martin by Miss Elizabeth Peet, late of the Rhode Island School.

The Institution has been awarded a gold medal by the Paris Exposition.

Prof. Charles R. Ely, of Gallaudet College, who for several years has pursued a course of advanced chemistry in Columbian University with marked success, has received from that University the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

During the past summer considerable changes have been made in the College buildings to provide accommodations for the increased number of students seeking admission.

Evangelical Lutheran School.—Four years ago the exclusively oral method was abandoned for the combined system, and now two other important changes have been made; the substitution of English for German as the language of the school, and the appointment of the Rev. H. A. Bentrup as Superintendent in the place of Mr. D. H. Uhlig.

Georgia School.—Miss Mary E. Clark has resigned her position as teacher to be married. Mr. Laurance E. Milligan, M. A., of Jacksonville, Illinois, and Miss Louise Robinson, of Portland, Maine, both graduates of the Normal Department of Gallaudet College, have been appointed teachers.

Illinois Institution.—Mr. Frank Read, Sr., after thirty-seven years of continuous service, has been granted leave of absence for the present year on account of failing health, with a pension for the current year, which will probably be continued if Mr. Read should be unable to resume active duties. Thirty-one years ago Mr. Read began the publication of the *Deaf-Mute Advance* as a private enterprise, and it has appeared weekly until the present summer, when the publication was temporarily suspended on account of the condition of Mr. Read's health. In 1897 the title of the paper was changed to the *New Era*, but the ownership and management of the journal were unchanged. Though not a money-making

enterprise for Mr. Read, the paper was well sustained under his management, and he paid the Institution a fair price in cash for printing his paper. The *New Era* will be continued, but it becomes an Institution paper under the direction and control of the authorities of the Institution, with Mr. W. H. Clifford, foreman of the printing office and an experienced newspaper man, as editor.

The following changes have occurred in the teaching corps: Miss Minnie Wait was married to Mr. E. P. Cleary and retires from the profession. Miss Elizabeth Foley was married in the summer vacation and retires from this school. Mrs. Blanche Barnes resigned on account of the removal of Mr. Barnes to another State. Mr. C. W. Taylor, former principal of the Milwaukee Day School, succeeds Dr. Brown, deceased. Mr. Harry Snyder, a graduate of the Pennsylvania Institution and of the Philadelphia High School, who has taught in a Western school for the deaf, succeeds Mr. Frank Read, Sr. Other vacancies have been filled by the appointment of Mr. C. P. Gillett, formerly of the Louisiana Institution, Miss Mary L. Noyes from the Western Pennsylvania Institution, Miss Elizabeth P. Wilkins from the Pennsylvania Institution, Miss Minnie Turner from the Northern New York Institution, and Miss Carolyn G. Taft, trained in the Horace Mann School. Miss Emily E. Sauter, from the Boston University, an experienced teacher of physical culture, will reorganize the department of physical training along modern lines, and Miss Sigfrid Slolander, of Boston, will take charge of the new department of Sloyd.

Iowa School.—Mrs. Rosa Keeler, late of the New Jersey School, has been appointed a teacher in the Oral Department. Mr. John Mather, formerly teacher of carpentry in the Pennsylvania Institution, takes charge of Manual Training and Sloyd.

Kansas Institution.—Miss Susie Boyd and Mrs. Carens have resigned, and Miss M. O. Bell and Miss Florence Wright, experienced teachers from the Missouri and North Dakota schools, have been engaged to supply their places.

Kentucky School.—Miss Hermine Haupt has resigned her position as teacher in the Oral Department to accept a posi-

lar position in the Colorado School. She is succeeded by Mrs. Stella Y. Christman, of Pennsylvania, who was a teacher here for many years. Mrs. Marie L. Nelson, also of the Oral Department, has resigned on account of ill health, and is succeeded by Miss Mary Bell, of Danville. Mr. T. S. McAloney, a teacher of the Manual Department, has resigned to accept the superintendency of the Montana School, and the vacancy is filled by the election of Mr. E. S. Tillinghast, who lately resigned as Superintendent of that school. Mr. W. H. Carter, a teacher in the Manual Department, has resigned to accept the position of Principal of the Literary Department in the Florida Institute.

Maryland School.—Mr. William R. Barry, President of the Board of Trustees, died August 12, 1900, aged 73. He was active in several financial, philanthropic, and religious enterprises, and, having a deaf daughter, took a special interest in the education and welfare of the deaf. He had a personal acquaintance with almost all the deaf people of Maryland, and was always ready to do everything in his power to promote their interests.

Maryland School for Colored.—Mr. J. W. Sowell, B. A., a graduate of the Alabama Institute and Gallaudet College, has been appointed teacher in the place of Mr. D. E. Moylan. Mr. Bledsoe, Resident Principal, took the courses in education at the Harvard School during the summer.

Michigan School.—Miss Clara Scott and Miss Hinda Long, teachers in the Manual Department, and Miss Nettie Crosby, primary art teacher, have resigned their positions to go into private life. Mrs. A. B. Perkins, of Holly, Michigan, a graduate of this school, is appointed in Miss Scott's place. It is probable that Miss Long's place in the Manual Department will not be filled. Miss Mary Beattie, who began her work as teacher of art to the deaf in the Minnesota School, has been appointed primary art teacher.

Brown Hall, the new school building, will be ready for the opening of school on September 19.

Minnesota School.—Miss Amy E. Snider has a year's leave of absence to visit other schools for the deaf in this country.

Miss Lois Walker, daughter of Mr. S. T. Walker, has been engaged to teach an oral class. Mrs. A. C. Gaw, *née* Miss Anna T. Spears, late of the Pennsylvania Institution, will have charge of the beginning oral class, taking the place of Miss Edith Brown.

Mississippi Institution.—Miss Anna Lancaster, a teacher in the Oral Department, has resigned her position to be married, and Miss Bessie Rogers, sister of the superintendent of the Kentucky Institution, has been appointed to the vacancy. Miss Alice Applewhite, a normal student here last year and sister of Mr. J. A. Applewhite, of the Washington State School, has been added to the corps of instructors.

In order to prevent overcrowding the buildings this year and to restore the printing trade, Mr. Dobyns has moved his family back into the Institution buildings, and the superintendent's cottage of nine rooms is converted into "The Small Boys' Dormitory" which is placed in charge of a special matron.

Missouri School.—Miss Anna C. Allen, for the past three years in charge of the Oral Department, died at her summer home at North Ferrisburg, Vermont, August 22, 1900, aged fifty. Miss Allen began her work as a teacher of the deaf in the Portland School fifteen years ago, and afterwards taught in the Rhode Island, Milwaukee, and North Carolina Schools. She was an able and accomplished woman, an energetic and faithful teacher, and a sincere, warm-hearted friend.

Miss Minnie O. Bell has resigned to go to the Kansas School, and Miss Elenore Kickey has been granted leave of absence for one year on account of ill health. Mr. L. A. Gaw and Miss Ethel Hammond have been elected to fill the vacancies.

Montana School.—Mr. E. S. Tillinghast has resigned his position as Superintendent to accept a position in the Kentucky School. He is succeeded by Mr. Thos. S. McAloney, late of the Kentucky School. Mr. Allen T. Schoolfield, for four years supervisor in the Kentucky School, has been added to the corps of teachers.

Nebraska School.—The School has been awarded a silver medal by the Paris Exposition, a gold medal by the Trans-

Mississippi Exposition, and twenty-one first premiums and two second premiums by the Nebraska State Fair. In the State Fair the school work of the deaf was placed in competition with that of hearing children.

New Jersey School.—Mrs. Rosa Keeler and Miss M. Oakley Bockee have resigned their positions as teachers, and Miss Caroline L. Olin, late of the Providence School, and Miss Mary R. Wood, a graduate of the New Jersey State Normal School, have been appointed to succeed them.

New York Institution.—The Paris Exposition has conferred a gold medal upon the Institution for the excellence of its exhibit.

From June 27 to September 18 a successful summer school of from nine to thirteen kindergarten boys was carried on at the Institution under the direction of Mr. Edward P. Clarke.

North Carolina (Raleigh) Institution.—Mr. W. H. Chambers, a graduate of the School at Morganton, who has been attending Gallaudet College for the past two years, succeeds Mr. Andrew J. Sullivan as teacher.

North Carolina (Morganton) School.—In the Oral Department Miss Sibelle de F. King, formerly of the Mackay Institution, takes the place of Miss Margaret Clark; Miss Martha C. Bell, a Normal Fellow of Gallaudet College, takes the place of Miss Mattie Simms, and Miss Sarah Kinnaird, of Kentucky, takes the place of Miss Daisy Young. In the Manual Department Miss Carrie Haynes takes the place of her father, the late Z. W. Haynes.

At the opening of the session a department of cooking will be established under the direction of Miss Sallie Hart, formerly of the Asheville Collegiate Institute. About forty of the older girls will be taught cooking.

North Dakota School.—Miss Ethel Hammond has resigned her position as teacher to take a course in Kindergarten work, Miss Florence Wright to accept a position in the Kansas School, and Mr. Walter Kilpatrick to continue his college studies. The vacancies thus caused have been filled by the appointment of Miss Edith Pyle, late of the New England Industrial School, Miss Lella Dedman, of Fulton, Missouri.

and Mr. Littleton A. Long, B. A., a recent graduate of Gallaudet College.

Oregon School.—Miss Nannie C. Orr, who formerly taught in the Western Pennsylvania Institution; Miss Susie Boyd, from the Kansas Institution; Mr. George W. Halse, formerly a teacher in the Ohio Institution, and Miss Mina Murton, a graduate of this school, have been appointed teachers. Mr. Charles E. Comp will instruct the boys in printing and have charge of the printing office. He served in like capacity in the Nebraska School for a number of years.

Pennsylvania Institution.—Misses Emma Pope, Anna T. Spears, Elizabeth P. Wilkins, Jennie Lucas, Katharine D. Partridge, Katharine E. Barry, Georgia L. Stevens, and Josephine M. Lackore have resigned their positions as teachers. They are succeeded by Misses Stella S. Guinness, Mabel Kingsley Jones, Adelaide H. Pybas, Mary M. Whitney, Marti K. Wilson, Ida LaRue, Martha R. Stannard, and Elizabeth Scott Tingley.

Cooking has been added to the industries taught, and an exceedingly well-appointed kitchen has been fitted up during the present summer in which to prosecute the work.

A teacher of speech has been added to the A grade in the Advanced Department.

Texas School.—Miss Ethel M. Hilliard, who last year filled the position of small boys' mistress and took training in speech teaching, succeeds Mrs. W. A. Scott, who taught a primary oral class temporarily last year. Mr. W. E. Taylor, late a teacher in the Nebraska School, has been appointed teacher in the oral department.

A number of the oral teachers wishing to make themselves more proficient in their work took a summer course in the East. Five ladies, together with the principal, spent a month at Syracuse under the instruction of Miss Brown of the Pennsylvania Oral School, and one received training from Miss Yale of the Curtis School.

Some improvements have been made on the building and grounds during the summer. Some of the windows have been repaired, the grounds, and efficiency of the oral training

plant has been increased, the lawn and park in front of the buildings have been beautified, and the courts immediately in the rear of the main building laid out with cement walks and grass plots.

Royal Cross School.—At the last annual meeting of the governors, reference was made to the death of Mr. T. Radcliffe, of Blackburn, whose gift of £200 Lancashire and Yorkshire stock before the school was built formed the nucleus of an endowment fund that has now grown to over £6,000.

Washington State School.—Miss Robina Tillinghast has been appointed to fill the place of Miss L. May Crawford, who has returned to her former position in the Arkansas Institute. Miss Alice McCredie takes the place of Miss T. McKeehan, who retired from the profession at the close of last term. Mr. W. A. Dohyns, M. A., son of the superintendent of the Mississippi Institution, and a graduate of the Normal Department of Gallaudet College, has been appointed teacher of Articulation, *vice* Miss Carrie R. Stinson, who resigned to accept a position in the Montana School.

Western Pennsylvania Institution.—The new kindergarten building is completed but it will be used as a dormitory for the present. Other buildings on the premises have been adapted to new uses, so that the entire school can be accommodated and every department kept running until the new buildings are erected. A number of classes were abandoned after the fire last year; in order to provide for the increased attendance this year, the following teachers have been added to the corps: Miss Clara L. Bell, late of the Northern New York Institution; Miss Ella J. Dimmick, of the Rhode Island Institute; Miss Candace A. Yendes, of the Florida School, and Miss Irene Van Benscoten, of the Green Bay School.

Wisconsin School.—Miss Lillian Sorrenson, of the Art Department, has a year's leave of absence for study in Paris; Miss Stella Fiske fills her place during her absence. Mr. A. C. Bloodgood, instructor in cabinet work, has resigned to take a position in the Manual Training School at Kenosha, Illinois, and is succeeded by Mr. D. E. Lee.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

A young lady, partially deaf, who has been educated orally in the Ohio Institution, having also completed the High School Course in the Manual Department, applies for a position as private teacher to a deaf child or as beginning teacher in an Institution. She has had experience as governess to a deaf and blind boy during vacation. References given. Address "Teacher." No. 768 Oak street, Columbus, Ohio.

An oral teacher of twelve years' experience in American schools for the deaf, and with excellent references, desires a position. Address "Oral," care of the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

New Language Chart, by R. H. Atwood of the Ohio State Institution for the Deaf. Fifteen Fundamental Forms of Expression. A great aid in teaching language. A saving of time and labor in the classroom. Also the best method of showing the compounding and complexing of sentences from short simple ones. For prices, address R. H. Atwood, 838 East Oak Street, Columbus, O.

"FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH." A course of systematic instruction in language, in four volumes, by Caroline C. Sweet. Price, \$3.54 per dozen. Single copy, 40c.

"STORY READER, No. 1." Sixty short stories prepared for young pupils, compiled by Ida V. Hammond. Price, \$3.54 per dozen. Single copy, 40c.

"STORY READER, No. 2." Short stories prepared for young pupils, compiled by Ida V. Hammond. Price, \$4.50 per dozen. Single copy, 45c.

"TALES AND STORIES." Contains nearly a hundred short stories and seventy-five conversations for practice in language, prepared by Wm. G. Jenkins, M. A. Price, \$6.00 per dozen. Single copy, 50c.

"BITS OF HISTORY." One hundred stories gathered from United States History, compiled by John E. Crane, M. A. Price, \$5.00 per dozen. Single copy, 50c.

"A PRIMER OF ENGLISH AND AMERICAN LITERATURE." By Abel S. Clark, M. A., with 25 portraits of authors. Price, \$7.50 per dozen. Single copy, 75c.

"WORDS AND PHRASES." Examples of the current English usage, by William G. Jenkins, M. A. Price, \$6.00 per dozen.

"STORIES FOR LANGUAGE STUDY."—Adapted to pupils of the third or fourth grade, compiled by Julia Garrison Kellogg. Price, \$4.50 per dozen.

Published by the American Book Co., at Hartford for the Deaf, Hartford, Connecticut.

Mr. JAMES DENISON's "Manual Alphabet as a Part of the Public-School Course," published in the *Annals* for October, 1886, has been reprinted in pamphlet form, accompanied by the beautiful manual alphabet drawn and engraved from photographs under the direction of Dr. J. C. GORDON. Copies may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at ten cents each, postage included.

Mr. J. HEIDSIEK's "Hearing Deaf-Mutes. A contribution toward the Elucidation of the Question of Methods," translated from the German by George W. Veditz, M. A., and published in the *Annals* for April, June, and September, 1898, has been reprinted in pamphlet form. Copies may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at 25 cents each, postage included.

Copies of Dr. HARVEY P. PLET's advice to parents of young deaf children, entitled "The Family Instruction of the Deaf in Early Childhood," reprinted from the Twenty-seventh Report of the New York Institution, may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at ten cents each, postage included.

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

VOL. XLV, No. 6.

OCTOBER, 1900.

THE CULTIVATION OF THE READING HABIT AND OF A TASTE FOR HISTORY IN THE PRIMARY GRADES.

It takes little argument to convince a child of the advantage of learning arithmetic. A desire to locate his home, or the town near which he lives, inclines him toward geography. Even grammar, the first few lessons over, is popular, and the diagramming a positive delight. But from the deaf, with the exception of semi-mutes, history meets with but a cold reception; and how the reading habit can be cultivated is one of our most difficult problems.

“What a deaf child likes,” “what a deaf child can understand,” “what appeals to the deaf-mute,” are phrases constantly on our tongue. We try conscientiously and laboriously to place ourselves in the mental attitude which we imagine to be theirs, only to be met with that listless indifference or bewildered stare, which shows plainly enough how far we have fallen short in our attempt to be instructive and entertaining at the same time.

Often I have selected what seemed to me interesting stories, cleverly told, only to have them returned with the information that they were “no good,” or that the child

had read part, but had not enough time for more ; “ better study.”

In the last few years, I have begun to understand that by going back to my own childhood and reproducing what interested me from the age of five to nine, I am surer of an audience among my pupils than in any other way. When memory fails me on any point, I go over to the house of a friend and for an hour or two try to do the agreeable to a small boy or girl. From these little friends I have learned that the story a child likes best is the one with which he is most familiar. We have very few calls for a new story compared with the demands to “ tell more about the bear,” or “ tell again about Jack cutting the bean-stalk.” Children will often call for stories with which they are so familiar that they interrupt you every few moments with, “ That is not right, you did not say that last time.”

I can remember as a child hearing my mother often speak of my fondness for reading, yet I think I must have been eight or nine years old before I ever voluntarily read a book with which I was not to some extent familiar, either from hearing it read aloud, or having the story told me. On the other hand, I could not have been over five when my father began reading *Marmion* aloud to my mother on winter evenings, yet as a child I read it over and over, and to this day feel an affection for Scott which is not at all lessened by my far greater admiration for other poets.

Acting upon these ideas I have been able, not only greatly to improve my history and language lessons, but to get a little voluntary reading done. Little, it is true, but still a beginning. For a month or two before I ask for any return work I begin telling stories to the children either in the few spare moments following a well recited lesson, or on Friday afternoon. When the number has amounted to half a dozen, I let them vote to decide which

is the best story, and encourage them to give reasons for their choice. I then select a popular one, being careful that while the outline is familiar the details shall be new. I get a copy, well printed, and clearly illustrated. This I "lend" to the child who has remembered most of the narrative. When the subject comes up next time, he is able to add many new details not before given; as the color of Cinderella's hair, or the exact words with which her cruel sisters left her on the night of the ball. Inspired by this, there will be several applications for the story; the next time several more, until the book becomes the fad of the hour, and even the dullest pupil will try it.

Gradually, the stories of "*How Little Two-Eyes Won her Prince*," or "*How Katherine Buried her Pennies*," give way to tales of the Italian boy who watched the ships go out from the wharves of Genoa, and who, by steadfastness of purpose, and perseverance under difficulties, grew to be the world's most renowned sea-captain; of the colonial boy who drilled his schoolmates with ardor, and settled their quarrels with justice, and whose life was so true to his ideals that his name has come down to us as a synonym of prudence, promptness, and valor. Imperceptibly we have glided into history, and here a wonderful impetus is given by the knowledge that what they are learning is true, and that they can find out many other things about a favorite hero in other books.

I try always to keep on hand a number of simple histories and history stories. These I run over before going into school and mark page and paragraph bearing on the lesson of the day. After the recitation, before turning to another division, these books are distributed, and each child is told what he is expected to contribute to the general fund of information. To one is given the description of a battle; to another the tracing of a line of march upon a map; to a third, with less capacity or less language, merely the description from a picture of the

man's appearance or the house in which he lived. In fifteen or twenty minutes they are called on to give the class the benefit of what they have learned. When all have finished, each child is required to write the story of his lesson, and is encouraged to draw as much as possible upon the supplementary reading of his class. All work, however, must be in his own language; no lengthy quotations are allowed. Lest among so many narrators the sequence of events should be lost, an outline of the man's life is kept on the board, divided into periods; and, if obtainable, pictures of him in youth, middle life, and old age, are put over the different heads. Though the children are encouraged to do supplementary reading they are never allowed to keep the books on their desks, turning over the leaves, looking at the pictures, and reading here and there. A book is taken from the library for a definite purpose, and when that is accomplished the book must be returned. Children are, of all people, the most easily bored, and when a book loses its novelty and freshness half the interest is gone.

As their acquaintance with historical characters becomes more extensive, Friday afternoon is set apart for a sort of game, in which each child is allowed to personate his favorite hero, and boast of his achievements. A stir was created a few weeks ago when a twelve-year old boy stalked solemnly to the middle of the room and announced, "I am Powhatan, I have more land than anybody, I am a boss Indian, I can mash John Smith's head with a club." John Smith, thus attacked, was on his feet in an instant with the retort, "You never did mash my head, I fooled you, I gave you no good beads for corn; when you are dead, the white people will drive the Indians over the mountains." Only the intervention of the teacher prevented another Indian war. I was particularly pleased with the point made by one of the girls that "John Smith must not tell about the white people driving out the Indians, as he was dead himself long before that time."

When the history narrative is capable of such translation, I let the children act it out in the corner of the school-room, and find that "playing" a scene often helps to make clear a rather difficult passage. Anything that appeals to the eye, a picture, a relic, a bit of costuming of the period under discussion, is of great assistance to a child, and helps him to realize the life and movement of a bygone time, which is likely to seem all too shadowy. A series of tableaux in costume, would, I believe, be a most beneficial exercise. It would induce any amount of reading from the ambitious child, and furnish even the dullard with a mental picture around which to group his facts.

After a year or so of this work, children begin to bring in scraps of information picked up outside. All of them will tell you news from their own home papers. Most of the boys will consider themselves authority on athletics and politics. One of my boys last session volunteered to keep me informed on the Boer war, and faithfully kept his word. I cannot say that his reports could be implicitly relied upon. His statements were often inaccurate, and sometimes contradictory, but this objection might be urged against far more distinguished war correspondents. I can say, however, that his language, which was far from good, improved wonderfully, and that he became an inveterate newspaper reader.

ANNE PAGE GOGGIN,
Instructor in the Texas School, Austin, Texas.

THE EIGHTH CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

THE Eighth Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf was held at the Alabama Institute for the Deaf, Talladega, Alabama, June 30 to July 4, 1900. The attendance was not large, but what the Conference lacked in numbers was made up in the enthusiasm and earnestness of those present at each day's proceedings.

The Conference was not burdened with papers, as such meetings usually are, and therefore much time was devoted to discussions, many of which were participated in by a majority of the members present. These discussions, together with interesting recitals of the work being done in the various schools of the country, followed by questions to draw out each speaker, made the meetings of the Conference not only pleasant and entertaining, but highly instructive as well.

The first meeting was held in the chapel of the Institute Saturday evening, June 30, at 8 o'clock, and was called to order by Mr. R. O. JOHNSON, a member of the Conference Committee, Dr. Job Williams, the Chairman of the Committee, being absent. Hon. H. L. McELDERBY, of Talladega, was made Temporary Chairman, and Mr. E. A. GRUVER, of New York, Temporary Secretary. After prayer by the Rev. T. M. CALLOWAY, an eloquent address of welcome on behalf of the citizens of Talladega and the State of Alabama was delivered by the Hon. J. B. GRAHAM, Superintendent of Public Instruction. He spoke feelingly of the late Dr. Joseph H. Johnson and the great work he accomplished while at the head of the Alabama Institute, and commended highly the work of his son, the present Principal. He pointed with pride to the fact that

Alabama had been most liberal to her State institutions, having spent \$250,000 on buildings and grounds for the benefit of the Institute for the Deaf and the Blind, notwithstanding the State carried a debt of \$33,000,000 after the period of reconstruction, but he said the people of Alabama had borne the burden of its schools and institutions without a murmur in the past and would continue to give them liberal support in the future.

Mr. J. H. JOHNSON, Principal of the Alabama Institute, next came forward and in a few words gave the members of the Conference a warm welcome and made all feel at home. He said that no one was more in sympathy with the great work of educating the deaf than himself, and that he was glad to note progress all along the line. He stated that it had been thought by some that the men who were in the profession in the earlier part of the century were of greater talent and more devoted to their work than those of later years, but he was pleased to see that the pendulum was now swinging back again and that young men of brains and energy were coming into our ranks. This he said was largely due to the Normal Department of Gallaudet College, which he commended most highly for the work it was doing. He spoke of the inspiration gained from seeing the older members present at these meetings, and concluded his remarks with assurances that the Institute over which he presided and the city of Talladega possessed nothing too good for the members of the Conference.

Dr. E. M. GALLAUDET, President of Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C., responded to the addresses of welcome on behalf of the Conference. He referred touchingly to the warm welcomes to the southland extended to him and others of the profession in days gone by. He said that he loved and honored those of this land who had been his co-laborers in the past, and that it was always a benediction to partake of their generous hospi-

tality ; and that which was offered on this occasion he said he accepted in the name of the Conference, knowing that it would be greatly appreciated by all of the institutions of our country. He said, in conclusion, " We do not expect wealth or much glory, but we are glad to be able to render service to the unfortunate, and to be co-workers with God to extend a helping hand to those who need it."

Responses were also made by Mr. J. N. TATE, of Minnesota ; Mr. F. W. BOOTH, of Pennsylvania ; Mr. J. R. DOBYNS, of Mississippi ; Mr. N. F. WALKER, of South Carolina, and Mr. W. K. ARGO, of Colorado. These addresses, while replete with pleasantries suitable to the occasion, gave some idea of the good work being done for humanity.

After these responses, the Chair appointed the following committees : Messrs. HAMMOND, WALKER, and GRUVER on Credentials ; Messrs. ROGERS, ARGO, and BOWLES on Order of Business ; Messrs. CONNOR, GOODWIN, and TATE on Permanent Organization. The Committee on Permanent Organization made its report the same evening, and announced that Mr. F. D. CLARKE, of Michigan, had been appointed President ; Mr. N. F. WALKER, of South Carolina, Vice-President ; Mr. J. H. JOHNSON, of Alabama, Secretary ; and Mr. E. A. GRUVER, of New York, Assistant Secretary. Mr. CLARKE then addressed the Conference, and in a speech full of good feeling thanked the members for the honor bestowed upon him.

Sunday afternoon was spent in discussing Sunday exercises in Schools for the Deaf. A majority of the schools reported exercises of a similar character, namely, a lecture or sermon by the superintendent or a male teacher, and a regular Sunday School. Seven schools out of the number represented at this Conference examine their pupils in Bible lessons. In one school there is no regular Bible instruction, but only ethical talks.

On Monday morning, July 2, at ten o'clock, the work of

the Conference began in earnest. Letters of regret from absent members were read by the Secretary; and greetings were sent to Dr. J. L. Noyes, Dr. P. G. Gillett, Professor Samuel Porter, Dr. Thomas Gallaudet, and others whom ill health and age prevented from being present.

A resolution was offered and adopted appointing Dr. E. M. GALLAUDET, Dr. E. A. FAY, and Dr. THOMAS GALLAUDET delegates to the International Congress to be held at Paris in the month of August.

One of the most interesting addresses of the day was delivered by President GALLAUDET upon "The Relation of the Schools to the College." He advised the principals of schools to prepare their pupils for the Freshman class, if possible, on account of the great number of applications for admittance into the Introductory class, and that there be a more thorough preparation for the College examination than had been in the past, as the standard of the course of study had been raised. He expressed regret at the carelessness which a few of the schools had shown in the manner of conducting the examinations of candidates for the College, the result being that some of them had to be sent home the first year, which was a mortification to the pupils and an injustice to the College. He urged superintendents and principals to maintain a stricter observance of the rules relating to these examinations in the future.

In discussing the topic "The Value of Examinations in Schools for the Deaf," there was an almost unanimous expression in favor of examinations, though a few were opposed to the formal semi-annual methods of examination by a committee of teachers or the superintendent, and advocated a monthly examination by the teacher or superintendent without so much formality.

Mr. F. D. CLARKE read a paper addressed to the Conference upon the advisability of establishing an industrial bureau at each school for the deaf in the United States

and Canada. The paper was prepared by Mr. Warren Robinson, of Wisconsin, and others of the Committee of the National Association of the Deaf. The bureaus proposed were to be maintained by the institutions at which they were established for the purpose of securing employment for deaf graduates and ex-pupils in the various fields of labor in our country. The superintendents of the institutions were asked to keep in touch with all important manufacturing plants, industrial establishments, and Government experimental stations by correspondence or personal visits, and to keep advertisements in agricultural journals, in order to secure positions for the unemployed deaf.

"The Comparative Value of the Several Trades Taught to the Deaf" was a topic which brought out a lengthy discussion, in which there was a variety of opinions. If any of the trades had more advocates than another, it was that of carpentering, or wood working.

"A Proper Division of the Pupils' Time between the Literary and the Industrial Departments" was also an interesting subject of discussion. A majority who spoke upon this subject favored fewer hours in the literary department for the older pupils and a longer time each day in the shops.

Mr. TATE, Superintendent of the Minnesota School, read a paper upon "Industrial Training in our Public Schools," saying it had been prepared by him for an association of hearing teachers in Minnesota. He made a strong plea for manual training, and showed that the position that Germany had taken among the nations was due largely to the training given her youth in the use of their hands. He said that such training strengthened the body, trained the hands and eyes, secured better attention, cultivated taste, matured judgment, developed order, and discouraged laziness.

On Tuesday morning the Report of the Editor of the *Annals** was read and its recommendations were adopted.

* Published in the September number of the *Annals*, pp. 427-430.

Messrs. R. O. JOHNSON, DOBYNS, and ROGERS, a committee appointed by the President to audit the accounts of the Editor, reported that they had made a careful examination of all accounts and found them correct. Mr. DOBYNS introduced a resolution directing the Committee of the Conference to select the date and the place and prepare a programme for the next Conference at least three months before it convenes. This resolution was passed unanimously. A motion was made and carried that hereafter Presidents of Conferences shall be members of the Committee *ex-officio*, each serving during his term of office. The Conference then proceeded to an election by ballot of four members of the Committee in addition to Mr. CLARKE (President of the Conference and therefore member of the Committee *ex-officio*), and Messrs. R. O. JOHNSON, of Indiana, J. H. JOHNSON, of Alabama, W. K. ARGO, of Colorado, and A. L. E. CROUTER, of Pennsylvania, were elected.

Mr. R. O. JOHNSON exhibited to the Conference specimens of school work done by pupils of the various grades in his Institution, together with the entire course of study outlined for ten years. His entertaining talk upon the subject, "The Course of Study in a School for the Deaf," proved highly instructive, and caused one of the most animated discussions had at any of the sessions.

"The Blind Deaf," was the subject of a paper sent in by Mr. W. WADE, of Oakmont, Pennsylvania. Mr. Wade reaffirmed his opinion in favor of schools for the deaf as the proper place to educate the blind-deaf, and said that as to the various systems of print, he thought, as had another, that "all are good, but none exclusively good."

The following were among the important questions taken from the Question Box: "How to locate the uneducated deaf children?" "What is about the correct proportion of male and female teachers for a school for the deaf?" "What are the merits of the akoulalion?" (to be answered by Mr. Clarke.) "How should an institution

paper be conducted?" "Which is the better plan with pupils of retarded mental development, to group them in classes or distribute them among several classes?" "Is it necessary for a school for the deaf to have a principal of the intellectual department, and why?"

As to the proportion of male and female teachers in a school for the deaf, Dr. GALLAUDET recommended that there be as near an equal division as possible.

With respect to the akoulalion Mr. CLARKE said that, owing to the light construction of the first instrument made, which the Michigan School bought, it would not stand schoolroom use and broke down. Acoustically it was a wonderful success, and the best aid to defective hearing he ever saw, and he believed that in time it would prove a great help in teaching orally those who had any remnants of hearing, but it had not been used long enough in his school to enable him to speak positively.

In conducting an institution paper the majority thought a "childrens' page" desirable, and that papers should be published more in the interest of the school and its pupils than for the benefit of outside subscribers. Mr. CLARKE, having stated that he expected to have the stories from the *Mirror* published in book form, was requested by a vote of the Conference to print an extra edition, that other schools might have the benefit of the publication.

Upon the question of classifying pupils of retarded mental development there was a difference of opinion, though it was generally conceded that in large schools it would be better to group them in separate classes.

Mr. DOBYNS answered the question concerning the necessity of having a principal of the intellectual department of a school, by saying that it depended upon whether the superintendent had time, and was competent to perform the duties of that office.

The Conference closed Wednesday morning, July 4, with resolutions of thanks to Mr. and Mrs. J. H. Johnson,

the Board of Commissioners of the Institute, and the citizens of Talladega, for their generous hospitality and entertainment. As a testimonial of their appreciation, the members presented to Mr. and Mrs. Johnson a beautiful cut-glass bowl. Alabama comes first in the alphabetical list of great States in the Union, and among the superintendents and principals entertained at this Conference she will stand first in hospitality.

After the close of the Conference several members were cordially invited to stop over at the Georgia School, where they were handsomely entertained by Mr. and Mrs. W. O. Connor.

AUGUSTUS ROGERS,
Superintendent of the Kentucky Institution, Danville, Kentucky.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS IN THE SUBDEPARTMENT FOR THE DEAF AND A BUSINESS MEETING OF DEPARTMENT SIXTEEN OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, AT CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA.

THE Subdepartment for the Deaf of Department Sixteen of the National Educational Association met in the Lutheran Church at Charleston, South Carolina, Wednesday, July 11, 1900, at 3.30 P. M. There was present a larger number of those directly interested in the education of the deaf than is usual. Representatives from New York to California and from Illinois to the Gulf were present and took part in the proceedings. The meeting was called to order by Miss MARY McCOWEN, Chicago, Chairman of the Subdepartment.

A large number of deaf persons being present, Messrs. NEWTON E. and W. LAURENS WALKER of South Carolina, Messrs. BOOTH and CROUTER of Pennsylvania, and Mr. DOBYNS of Mississippi were appointed interpreters.

We were deprived of the pleasure of hearing the address of Dr. Warring Wilkinson, President, who was providentially hindered from attending. In lieu of this part of the programme, Dr. J. C. GORDON, Superintendent of the Illinois Institution, at the request of the Chairman, made a brief but interesting talk on "The Objects of the Education of the Deaf." The following papers were then read, viz: "The Growth and Development of Southern Schools for the Deaf," by Mr. J. R. DOBYNS, Superintendent of the Mississippi School; "The State of the Case," by Miss MARY S. GARRETT, Principal of the Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age, Philadelphia; "Statistics of Speech Teaching in American Schools for the Deaf," by Mr. F. W. BOOTH, Editor of the *Association Review*; "Recent Changes of Method in the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf," by Dr. A. L. E. CROUTER, Superintendent of the Pennsylvania Institution.

Mr. N. E. WALKER, Superintendent of the South Carolina School, gave an interesting account of the origin and growth of that School. His father founded it; he has successfully carried it on; it is earnestly hoped that his mantle may fall on one of his sons.

At the close of these papers the subject, "Day Schools for the Deaf the Logical Outcome of Educational Progress," was presented by Mrs. MARION FOSTER WASHBURN of the Chicago Institute of Education, Chicago, in an attractive speech. She covered the ground on her side of the question so completely that Mr. FOSHAY, Superintendent of Schools in Los Angeles, California, who had crossed the continent with a paper favoring day schools for the deaf, declined to read it. So charmingly did she address herself to the subject that the most ardent opponents, bowing to the laws of chivalry, left her in triumphant possession of the approval of the laity.

Miss GARRETT gave an exhibition of the interesting

attainments of her pupils in speech and lip-reading, and Miss SARAH A. ROGERS, a congenitally deaf graduate of the South Carolina School and of Gallaudet College, was called to the platform and gave an exhibition of her powers of speech and lip-reading. She certainly is remarkable in that way.

The number and length of the papers presented precluded the discussions which are so necessary to the full development of the subjects treated. At seven o'clock this subdepartment adjourned for a business meeting with Department Sixteen, at the Charleston Hotel, at 8.30, and thus passed into history another earnest effort for the advancement of the education of the deaf of this great country.

The business meeting of the Department was called to order in the parlors of the Charleston Hotel at the hour named. Representatives from the three subdepartments were present. In the absence of Dr. Wilkinson, President, and Dr. Fay, Secretary, Dr. GORDON, of Illinois, was called to the Chair, and Mr. E. A. GRUVER, of New York, was made Secretary pro tem.

Dr. CROUTER offered the following resolution, viz: "That for purposes of meeting we come together as one body, and that hereafter at each meeting the subdepartments for the deaf, blind, and feeble-minded be considered as a whole and not separately as is now the case." After a full and free discussion, the resolution was adopted without opposition.

Mr. E. E. ALLEN, Superintendent of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind, moved that a committee of three, one from each subdepartment, be appointed to draw up by-laws by which the Department shall hereafter be governed. The motion was adopted, and the President appointed Miss McCOWEN for the deaf, Miss MARGARET BANCROFT, of Haddonfield, New Jersey, for the feeble-minded, and Mr. ALLEN for the blind.

An election of officers resulted in making Miss MARY McCOWEN, of Chicago, President; Mr. E. R. JOHNSTONE, of Vineland, N. J., Vice-President, and Mr. E. A. GRUVER, of New York, Secretary.

On motion of Dr. JOHNSTONE, there was constituted an Executive Committee of five, to consist of the officers of the Department and two others to be appointed by the President.* Such is now the status of Department Sixteen of the National Educational Association.

JOHN R. DOBYNS,
Superintendent of the Mississippi Institution, Jackson, Mississippi.

THE NORMAL COURSE AT GALLAUDET COLLEGE.

It is now nine years since the Normal Department, otherwise known as the "New Departure," at Gallaudet College was inaugurated. Nine classes have been graduated, containing a total of forty-eight students, thirty-six of whom were normal fellows. The distinction between normal fellows and normal students at Gallaudet College is that the fellows are college graduates. In the total number is included Babu Jamini Nath Banerji, Principal of the Calcutta School for the Deaf, formerly a student at the University of Calcutta, who was a normal student at Gallaudet College in 1896. Mr. Shimpachi Konishi, Director of the School for the Deaf and Blind in Japan, observed the work at the Kendall School during the months of May and June, 1897, but was not enrolled as a regular student.

The degrees of B. A., B. S., B. Ph., M. A., and M. S. are represented among the normal fellows, the degree of Bachelor of Arts predominating. The number holding each degree is M. A. 3, M. S. 2, B. A. 23, B. Ph. 3, and

* Miss McCowen has not yet named the two other members.

B. S. 5. Since graduating from Gallaudet, at least five of the fellows who are now in the profession have taken advanced courses of study leading to appropriate degrees. Charles R. Ely (A. B., 1891, Yale; M. A., 1892, Gallaudet) received the degree of A. M. from Yale in 1897, and that of Ph. D. from Columbian University in 1900, besides winning a prize of \$150 at Columbian for excellence in the study of chemistry. Joseph A. Tillinghast (B. S., 1891, Davidson College, North Carolina; M. A., 1892, Gallaudet and Davidson Colleges) is at present taking a post-graduate course at Cornell University. Percival Hall (A. B., 1892, Harvard; M. A., 1893, Gallaudet) received the degree of M. A. in course from Columbian University in 1898, and is a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from Columbian. Herbert E. Day (Ph. B., 1893, Brown University; M. A., Gallaudet College, 1895) is pursuing a course of study at Columbian University leading to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. A recent Gallaudet normal fellow, who held previously the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy, has received the degree of B. A. in course from his alma mater. The evidence of an ambition for a ripe and thorough scholarship, shown by the young professors who have lately been added to the faculty of Gallaudet College, is doubtless a source of gratification to the College authorities, and may justly be a matter of pride to all who are interested in the welfare and prestige of the College.

Up to the school year 1898-99, the normal fellows had all come from different colleges. Of the New England colleges, Amherst, Brown, Harvard, Tufts, Williams, and Yale each had a representative. Up to the school year 1900-'01, the University of Nebraska, Female Synodical College, Millsaps College, Brown University, and Illinois College have each had two representatives. The influence of environment is observed in the fact that schools for the deaf exist in the towns or cities where ten normal fellows

Mississippi River, ten ; south of the Ohio 2
sylvania, nine ; New England, seven ; and
States north of the Ohio River and the 1
States. The remaining fellow was gradua
College, Oxford, England. The normal s
ing the fellows, represent twenty-five diffe
District of Columbia, Ireland, Wales an
souri leads with four representatives, fo
necticut, Michigan, Mississippi, Illinois,
with three each. The distribution of the
in respect to residence has been reman
even, according to natural geographical di
ering the total number of forty-five fro
States. It is a strong example of the na
exerted by the College.

A circular of information issued in 189
gestion of establishing the fellowships was
arrangement existing in the Johns Hopkin
Baltimore, from the ranks of whose fellow
sors, principals of high schools, and othe
high rank are drawn in large numbers.
normal class was graduated from Gallau
have elapsed, and now one fellow is Resid
the Baltimore School for the Colored De
been Superintendent of the Montana Se

Remaining twenty-six are divided among the schools as follows: Gallaudet College 3, Pennsylvania 2, Minnesota 2, Texas 2, Washington State 2, Nebraska 2, Indiana 2, New York 1, Illinois 1, Kentucky 1, Iowa 1, Georgia 1, North Carolina 1, Colorado 1, Wisconsin 1, Baltimore 1, Sales 1, and Cornell University 1. The schools in which normal fellows have taught in addition to those already mentioned are Alabama, Kansas, Montana, and Utah, a total of twenty-one institutions. The schools which have employed the largest number of normal fellows are Minnesota six, New York four, Gallaudet College, Kentucky, and Washington State three each.

Six of the fellows were the sons and daughter of superintendents of schools for the deaf. Of the normal students, one is a graduate of a science school, another is a normal school graduate, and another had been a supervisor and teacher in a school for the deaf for some years. The majority of the normal students have been young ladies, and all of them have had a high-school education at least. Of late the number of women applying for fellowships at Gallaudet College has rapidly increased, so that before April, 1900, the quota of young women for the normal class of 1900-'01 was full. In a note in the *Annals* for April, 1900, Dr. Gallaudet called attention to the fact that the quota of young men for the normal class for the school year 1900-'01 was not full, and he said that he would be pleased to receive nominations of eligible college graduates. The vacancies were speedily filled.

Of the fifteen schools where students are trained for service in teaching the deaf, Gallaudet College is the only institution which makes a specialty of training college graduates. It is the only place where young men receive normal instruction. There is no other place in the country, within the writer's knowledge, where the members of the normal class who are not already familiar with the

natural language of the deaf receive daily instruction throughout the year in the language of signs, in addition to a thorough preparation in the oral method of teaching the deaf. It is the only place in which the use of manual spelling is taught and in which great care is taken that correct habits of forming the letters are learned. Under a deaf instructor of forty-two years' experience, who was a pupil of Laurent Clerc at the Hartford School, the origin and meaning of signs, which are in themselves a fascinating study, are explained, and the members of the normal class are required to use them in telling stories, in giving lectures, and in conducting chapel exercises. This is indeed an excellent preparation for taking up immediately after graduation an important and indispensable part of the education of the deaf.

The points which have been indicated are full of significance when we consider the fact that sixty-seven out of one hundred and fourteen schools in the United States use the combined system of instruction, these schools containing four-fifths of all the pupils enrolled.

Of the forty-eight normal students in the United States during the school year 1899-'00, only five were fitted to teach by means of the combined system as well as by the oral method. The five referred to were the normal students at Gallaudet College. Judging from the returns, forty-three were trained teachers of speech and nothing more. They will doubtless "pick up" a knowledge of signs and the manual alphabet, but if they are called upon in a combined-system school to tell a story in signs, or to interpret in signs, or to use the language of gestures on any special occasion, or to use the manual alphabet with accuracy and facility, the lack of previous preparation will prove a serious obstacle.

The college library, to which the Gallaudet normal students have access, contains about 600 rare and valuable books dealing with the education of the deaf from

the earliest times. The resources of this collection afford the student an opportunity for study and research which cannot be equalled outside of Washington. The advantages which a year's residence at the capital offers, through public libraries, museums, legislative halls, courts, and many other places where contact with men of high attainments is possible, are readily recognized.

In an article on "The Ideal School for the Deaf" (*Annals*, vol. xxxvii, page 280), President Gallaudet enumerates the conditions which, in his opinion, are essential to a model school. A part of the second condition reads as follows: "It [the ideal school] should be in charge of a man well versed in *all* the methods of teaching the deaf, including a thorough familiarity with signs." Out of the forty-eight normal students last year, the three men of the normal class at Gallaudet College were the only ones who could meet that condition. The third condition, in part, was that all teachers should have a good knowledge of the language of signs. The Gallaudet College normal class was the only one which was prepared to comply with that requirement. Condition number seven was that orally taught pupils should have the benefit of lectures and religious services in the sign-language. The three men in the Gallaudet normal class, six per cent. of the normal graduates of 1899-'00, have been trained to fulfill this condition. Point number twelve was that religious instruction of an undenominational character should be given in the language through which alone the mind and heart of the deaf can be moved and impressed as the mind and heart of the hearing are through audible speech. Only five out of forty-eight normal graduates in the school year 1899-'00 have been trained to perform this most important duty. The progress made in the teaching of speech to the deaf is a cause for rejoicing, but does it not appear that the course of study in the normal departments of a majority of the schools lacks an essential part

of the proper and needful equipment of every teacher of the deaf?

Of the forty-eight teachers in training in the school year 1899-'00, forty-five, or nearly ninety-four per cent., were women. If this percentage continues it will not be long before the proportion of men engaged in the profession of teaching the deaf will be reduced to a minimum. It is understood that many new teachers every year enter the work without the advantage of a normal training.

To one who applied for a fellowship at Gallaudet in 1892, while he was still a freshman in college, and who has enjoyed the privileges and opportunities of a fellowship and a year at Washington, it seems surprising, to say the least, that there is not a great rush of worthy applicants of the highest scholarship and character for the fellowships. While the compensation of teachers in the profession is by no means all that it should be, nevertheless, as has been often said, the science of instructing the deaf is still in its infancy, and the opportunities for the well-equipped young man, who comes into the work with the idea of remaining in it permanently, and who has a personal interest and an enthusiasm in the welfare of the deaf, are unlimited. It is indeed a work which taxes the highest energy and resources of mind and body, but on the other hand it is truly a profession from which the devoted instructor derives much satisfaction, encouragement, and inspiration.

One of the most progressive superintendents in the profession, who has recommended some excellent young men of liberal education for fellowships at Gallaudet, says that he thinks every superintendent ought to be interested in the normal department of the College. It might further be said that every one who is interested in maintaining a high standard of professional ability among instructors of the deaf should, as far as possible, bring to the attention of college graduates of the highest education and char-

acter the possibilities of a career as a teacher of the deaf, and urge them to take the normal course at Gallaudet or to apply for the position of tutor or supervisor in some school for the deaf preparatory to taking a position as teacher. It has been truly said that those who have been appointed tutors or supervisors are trained to harmonize with the methods of the school in which they are to labor, and that in this respect a teacher brought up in this way is often more acceptable to the head of the school and more useful to the school than would be a person from another school who was habituated to different ways of instructing. Moreover, the tutor or supervisor who aspires to the position of instructor is sure of a position if he is worthy of it. The roll of principals and teachers who began as supervisors is a long and honorable one.

In the writer's experience, when college men are told of the opportunities offered at Gallaudet College, they are greatly surprised, and show considerable interest in the details of the work of educating the deaf. Within the past year it has been the writer's privilege to place the facts in regard to our work before three promising graduates of New England colleges, two of them having taken the Master's degree in course at their alma mater, and the result of the word spoken in season has been that all three have eagerly accepted openings in the profession, and there is every reason to believe that each one will remain permanently in the work. None of them would have thought anything about entering the profession of teaching the deaf if their attention had not been particularly directed thereto. One who held the Master's degree was graduated from the normal course at Gallaudet last summer, and is now supervisor in one of our largest schools. The other M. A., who has taught in public schools, is tutor in another large school, and the third young man is one of the present normal fellows at Gallaudet College. Whether college graduates with the degree of Master of

Arts, and with previous experience in teaching have been appointed tutors or supervisors in any school for the deaf before 1900 is not certain, but it can surely be said that, when these young men to whom I have alluded are appointed instructors, they will have a foundation of training and experience, of theory and practice, such as very few beginning teachers have enjoyed, and which all may justly envy.

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THE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF SOUTHERN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.*

When my attention was first called to the subject of this paper it occurred to me that either of the words, "growth" or "development," conveyed the ideas sought to be presented. However, when I came to study their meanings and the history of the schools I saw that two distinct processes were going on in the formation of our institutions. An institution might grow to have a thousand pupils and still not be developed. The healthy institution develops as it grows. The tree grows; the foliage, the flower, the fruit develop. The brief time necessarily allotted for this paper could be taken up, and still not do the subject justice, in considering the growth and development of any one of the schools under consideration. How far short it must fall then for a proper presentation of this great subject in all its fulness.

I have included in the list of Southern schools the following, viz: Kentucky, established in 1823; Virginia, in 1839; Tennessee and North Carolina, in 1845; Georgia, in 1846; South Carolina, in 1849; Louisiana, in 1852;

* Read at the meeting of Department Sixteen of the American Educational Association, Charleston, South Carolina, July 11, 1900.

Mississippi, in 1854 ; Texas, in 1857 ; Alabama, in 1858 ; Arkansas, in 1868 ; West Virginia, in 1870 ; and Florida, in 1885. While this proves to be the "unlucky number thirteen," we can remember that the original number of States was the same.

In considering this subject we must bear in mind, as we always do when considering the growth of anything in the South, that a terrible Civil War devastated this section of the country. Some of these institutions, after they had been established, were wiped off the face of the earth and their second struggle for existence was harder than the first. While those of the North and West have been built out of the abundance of the people, those of the South have been provided for out of the poverty of the citizens. Their growth has kept pace with the increase in population ; their development has been like that of other schools for the deaf, remarkable as the age in which we live. They opened originally with a total attendance of ninety, an average of seven. They enrolled last year two thousand six hundred and twenty-three. They began with one teacher in each school. To carry on the work last year required two hundred and forty-four instructors. Their aggregate original annual appropriations for support was \$84,000. They expended for the same purpose during the last fiscal period \$431,004. The original value of their buildings and grounds was \$48,144. The present value is \$1,853,500. They were opened in various kinds of buildings. Some were rented, some were family dwellings. Georgia and Texas inaugurated their work in log cabins which belonged to them. The buildings of the former are now worth \$85,000 ; the latter \$300,000. From the mean, uncomfortable, and inadequate quarters in which they were started, all, except two, have grown into imposing, comfortable, and ample brick and stone buildings. From humble suppliants at the feet of legislatures begging for recognition and pleading for

support, they have grown to that stature which commands recognition and demands support.

While the growth of these institutions bears a splendid testimony to the benevolence and liberality of the people, their development indicates courage, patience, energy, faithfulness, care, labor, study, ingenuity, and brain on the part of directors, teachers, and officers. The story of their growth is attractive, that of their development interesting. The former deals with matter, the latter with mind.

From small classes formed to cultivate the power to express thought in the sign and written languages, they have developed into great schools for the upbuilding of the physical, intellectual, and moral manhood of the deaf. The best illustration of their development is found in the number and character of the various branches of instruction, most of which are taught in the Southern schools. Those of the handiwork are as follows, viz:

Art, Baking, Barbering, Basket-making, Blacksmithing, Bookbinding, Bricklaying, Broom-making, Cabinet-making, Calcimining, Carpentry, Chalk-engraving, Cementing, Chair-making, China painting, Cooking, Clay modelling, Coopersy, Drawing, Dressmaking, Embroidery, Engineering, Fancy-work, Farming, Floriculture, Gardening, Glazing, Harness-making, Half-tone engraving, Housework, Horticulture, Ironing, Knitting, Manual training, Mattress-making, Millinery, Needlework, Painting, Paperhanging, Plastering, Plate-engraving, Photography, Printing, Sewing, Shoemaking, Sloyd, Stone-laying, Tailoring, Typewriting, Venetian Iron Work, Weaving, Woodcarving, Wood-engraving, Wood-turning, Wood-working, and the Use of Tools.

The intellectual and æsthetic natures of the pupils are provided for by their instruction in reading, history, mathematics, science, philosophy, literature, governmental science, speech and speech reading, art, painting, decorating, engraving, and modelling.

The high moral characters of officers and teachers employed in these schools and the systematic instruction given show the development along the spiritual line. So thorough has been the development in all directions that the deaf of the South to-day stand in need of nothing to place them upon a level with the best hearing men and women except EPHPHATHA. When we remember that our Saviour performed a miracle to enable a man to speak, is it wonderful that the world looks with awe upon the developments in the education of the deaf?

The useful, intellectual, and moral qualities of the graduates of these schools afford a general proof of the broadest development. If specific testimony were needed to show that this is true, enough cases could be cited to establish the truth of the proposition, and of such a character as to carry with each one its own conclusive argument.

Those of large experience with the deaf can easily recall instances of pupils entering our schools at the ages of eight, ten, and upward, whose mental endowments were such as to have so stunted their physical growth that their steps were unsafe, but who have developed into good specimens of physical manhood.

The time it takes to read this paper would not be sufficient to pronounce the long list of bright pupils whose gratifying progress has been the inspiration of teachers and the life of our schools. The records here and there are illuminated with the names of pupils whose accomplishments are so brilliant that their products are worthy to be classed with those of the masters. Their embroideries fascinate; their portraits speak; their paintings recreate; their models breathe.

It is not necessary for me to repeat here the long list of men and women, the products of these schools, whose consistent Christian lives have been so conspicuous as to make them bright and shining lights. Shall not the in-

STATISTICS OF SOUTHERN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1870-1899.

	Kentucky.	Virginia.	Tennessee.	N. Carolina.	Georgia.	S. Carolina.	Louisiana.	Mississippi.	Texas.	Alabama.	Arkansas.	W. Virginia.	Florida.	Texas Colored.	N. Carolina.	Grand Total.
1870-1879																
Average number pupils ..	102	97	118	121	64	25	34	47	39	33	66	57	57	31	102	853
Male	64	55	71	70	38	11	20	24	25	24	38	38	38	22	34	460
Female	48	42	47	51	26	14	14	23	14	9	28	19	19	14	14	379
Number instructors ..	6	8	8	8	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	61
Male	6	8	8	8	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	61
Female	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	15
Deaf	3	3	3	4	3	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	28
Articulation ..	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Value of buildings and grounds ..	\$40,000	\$175,000	\$130,000	\$50,000	\$35,000	\$30,000	\$25,000	\$25,000	\$25,000	\$50,000	\$25,000	\$75,000	\$75,000	\$5,000	\$5,000	\$80,000
Expended for buildings and grounds ..	8,611	2,661	30,192	26,000	6,000	4,833	5,000	18,000	24,042	48,000	2,800	25,541	25,541	1,000	1,000	187,180
Expended for support ..	92,497	212,000	130,570	235,005	77,878	74,058	36,323	62,000	75,386	92,021	89,970	142,660	142,660	33,000	33,000	1,314,964
1880-1889																
Average number pupils ..	172	96	142	110	89	61	42	85	146	61	99	71	71	10	31	1,222
Male	98	53	86	62	53	30	22	45	50	36	54	45	45	7	22	685
Female	74	43	56	48	36	31	20	40	56	25	45	26	26	3	9	529
Number instructors ..	11	10	8	8	6	5	4	6	6	6	6	6	6	2	3	90
Male	11	10	8	8	6	5	4	6	6	6	6	6	6	2	3	90
Female	7	7	5	6	6	5	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	1	1	56
Deaf	4	2	3	2	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	34
Articulation ..	5	4	4	3	3	2	2	2	5	3	3	3	3	1	1	39
Value of buildings and grounds ..	170,000	200,000	150,000	100,000	60,000	54,000	26,000	75,000	130,000	76,000	85,000	70,000	16,000	83,000	1,000	1,243,000
Expended for buildings and grounds ..	50,972	30,864	113,064	113,000	36,897	26,881	5,000	42,300	114,186	14,500	74,784	74,784	2,764	21,600	21,600	446,513
Expended for support ..	317,406	200,122	231,740	294,005	142,642	67,821	50,000	116,675	215,080	99,104	150,767	246,094	3,700	21,600	21,600	2,189,058
1890-1899																
Average number pupils ..	303	190	217	114	145	106	98	95	269	132	200	115	44	40	102	2,124
Male	170	63	131	67	78	56	80	45	154	69	114	60	22	24	34	1,166
Female	133	67	86	47	67	50	18	50	115	63	86	55	22	16	68	958
Number instructors ..	22	12	11	10	10	9	7	9	28	11	16	10	5	4	18	172
Male	22	12	11	10	10	9	7	9	28	11	16	10	5	4	18	172
Female	12	5	5	6	6	6	4	3	6	6	6	6	3	2	2	60
Deaf	6	5	5	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	2	2	2	60
Articulation ..	5	3	3	3	3	3	4	2	4	3	3	3	2	2	2	57
Value of buildings and grounds ..	143,500	160,000	175,000	55,000	85,000	61,000	300,000	75,000	300,000	100,000	200,000	90,000	18,000	50,000	175,000	1,917,500
Expended for buildings and grounds ..	45,609	15,492	33,664	113,000	41,600	4,939	37,000	97,000	41,500	25,000	69,100	32,000	10,000	14,000	40,000	462,000
Expended for support ..	474,583	238,000	291,578	219,000	184,815	163,729	135,000	180,700	347,700	144,000	265,000	265,000	26,000	100,000	100,000	2,415,000
Similar volumes in library ..	2,360	300	250	1,000	1,000	925	600	700	800	800	1,200	1,000	500	300	300	15,200
Total number instructed ..	1,406	946	1,014	221	305	407	400	400	628	200	400	400	400	74	376	6,106

fluences for good thus set in motion be reckoned with this development?

From statistics I had already gathered before undertaking the preparation of this paper, I am satisfied that those who have gone out from these schools within the last thirty years are now making, in dollars and cents, annually more than the legislatures of the States appropriate to maintain the Schools.

I have very carefully compiled from the Tabular Statements of American Schools for the Deaf, as published in the *Annals*, the statistical table on page 468, covering the period from 1870 to 1899, inclusive.

Begging to acknowledge my indebtedness to the *American Annals*, to the Histories of the Institutions published by the Volta Bureau, and to the various superintendents, this paper is respectfully submitted.

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HOME AS A KINDERGARTEN FOR AN UNTAUGHT DEAF CHILD.

It is too well known to need repeating here that a child receives his first lessons at his mother's knee. The question is, Can the same rule be applied to a deaf child in a family of ordinary intelligence? True, the mother cannot teach her deaf child language in the same way as she does his more fortunate brother and sister. But the first thing needful for the child is not writing or reading, but cultivating his instincts of observation, imitation, imagination, investigation, etc. In spite of the difficulties of communication between mother and child, the mother's instinct will reveal a way to give him a home training. Indeed, however humble the home may be, or however apparently unfavorable the environment for mental cul-

ture, there is much to be learned there that cannot be obtained even in a kindergarten. The lessons that are taught at the kindergarten are often forgotten, but what the mother imparts to the child remains indelibly engraved on his mind.

It is at home and through his mother that the child's character is formed, and he begins to learn right from wrong. It must, necessarily, be a matter of time for the child to grasp the ideas of right and wrong. His conscience is, somewhat, a matter of education, and his moral condition is largely influenced by his environment.

No general rule can be laid down equally practicable in all cases and possible in all homes. What would be suitable for one child would be wholly unsuitable for another; what is possible in one home is entirely impossible in another. Yet every child can be taught to advantage at home before he is of school age. The larger part of the child's real character comes from other sources than school. Nature, environment, and his own inward experiences are among the child's most constant teachers, and the home with its varying details of every-day life is the best of schools.

The child has ideas of his own respecting things and persons he sees and hears about. The circumstances under which those ideas arise are as various as they are numerous. The ideas, though crude and imperfect, are of incalculable value in the training of his senses and the cultivation of his powers of thought and expression. These are the very foundation on which the child's education stands. He must observe and think first in order to learn.

Froebel urges that children should be encouraged and led to make use of the results of their infant efforts. He seeks to give the child experience rather than instruction, and to educate him by action rather than by books or anything in the nature of abstract learning.

When he begins to learn the names of objects his mental power and interest are aroused, particularly in such as he has previously seen at home and in pictures. The thoughts associated with such things are more enduring and of greater help to him than hours spent in teaching merely by sentiment and fancy. Experience has demonstrated that the knowledge a child of eight or ten years acquires at home goes much farther toward opening up and developing the mind than the knowledge one of four or six years gets only under a teacher at school. It must be borne in mind that the older the child, the more settled is his character and the better the condition of his mind.

When our first schools for the deaf were established children were not generally admitted before the age of twelve years. But all has changed since then; very young children are now received and kindergartens are coming up all over the country.

But do we not begin to educate our children in a formal way too early? The practice is common of putting a child through a regular routine of lessons day by day—sometimes, even, before he has learned to stand squarely on his feet—with the idea that he must be educated. Why is it that so many children who were unusually bright and quick to learn at first, and could do things beyond their years, have turned out to be poorly developed men and women, entirely disappointing the hopes of those who expected great things of them? Can this be attributed to the fact that their education began too early, that their brains are worn out, and that instead of developing we have been wrecking them? We would not ask a child to carry a load that we knew to be too heavy for his physical strength. Then why impose upon a far more sensitive organ—the brain? We ought to be sure that the means we employ do not defeat our very desire to give them that inestimable boon, education.

In this age of science and progress, old methods, sys-

tems, and appliances are laid aside and supplanted by the new and improved. Every thought, every plan, every desire is to save time and labor.

Much has been accomplished along this line, and still more may be done to help the child learn more quickly and easily, and to make the studies more interesting and profitable. Great and innumerable are the advantages of to-day that a child of twenty-five years ago did not have.

But with all these wonderful strides of advancement the law of growth of the child's mind remains and must remain unchanged. "Nature can make absolute laws, but she cannot break the least of them." For each error in living a penalty is exacted. For each good habit a payment in time is allotted. A hearing child's education begins almost at birth. But people think a deaf child has nothing to start with.

It is needless to repeat that a deficiency in one faculty often produces a corresponding increase of activity in the remaining senses. That is true of a deaf person. The need of cultivating the remaining senses first of all is imperative, for the deaf depend entirely on these. The mind must have time to grow and develop, to pass through the early stages, before it reaches its proper powers and abilities. Each day is but accumulated yesterdays, and the mind is a storehouse of all that went before.

Even an untaught deaf child notices and learns more, much more, than is commonly supposed. He is not devoid of thought, judgment, or imagination. Too much stress cannot be laid on the necessity of thinking. After all, this is the highest result of education. Pedagogy tells us that "the science of education is the science of interesting. Once get a child thoroughly interested in a subject and he can educate himself, along that line at least." Truly the child educates himself by becoming familiar with nature, persons, and animals through his senses. He is unfortunate who receives only a school training.

His instinct is to give himself up to a full, vigorous activity. Thus he picks up information in his own and nature's way as he goes along. Being of an investigating character, he will seek different means to learn whatever he wishes to know.

Every one has a religious side to his nature ; the deaf child as well as others. He possesses faith, and is endowed with reverence and awe of sacred things. He even learns something about God through his friends and playmates.

I hope a few personal reminiscences will be pardoned, as they will illustrate how the first impressions made on a child's mind (even a child who had few advantages at home) will help him in his school life.

I have but a vague recollection of the time when I could hear. It was after I became deaf that what knowledge and ideas I had about religious matters and common things was picked up by coming in contact with different people. My school life began at the age of ten years. I was left to myself a good deal previous to that time. However, that fact was not without its advantages. There were kind people who took an interest in me in different ways. Their influence stamped itself indelibly on me and has remained to this day. Their visits are among the most pleasant memories of my childhood days. They made it a point to teach me something useful, such as making little things out of paper, counting on the fingers as far as twenty-five, and copying the printed letters A, B, C, etc. They thought that to copy written letters was too difficult an undertaking for me, and they made no effort to teach me that. However, they taught me the manual alphabet to some extent. It was a great source of wonder and amusement to make letters on the fingers. I used to gather playmates around me and make my fingers move rapidly to their astonishment and confusion. When I went to school I had no great difficulty

in learning to read and write, though I had never learned a single word. The first day at school I noticed boys spelling "cat," "dog," etc., and recognized the letters, but, of course, could not make out what the words stood for.

I used to go occasionally to Sunday-school, partly because others did, partly because I wanted to pass away the time. The kindly greeting that the teacher gave me, the smile and welcome of friends, made an impression on my mind that will never be effaced.

I can call to mind one person in particular. She was a sad-looking lady in a big "sun-down," the sides pulled down with a broad, dark ribbon. I was her only pupil. It was through her that I received my first impressions about Jesus. I learned the story of the crucifixion in this way: One Sunday she took me upstairs into the church while the children were assembled in the basement. She was showing me some pictures in a book representing scenes of Jesus's life, when we came to the one illustrating the crucifixion. I remembered to have seen it several times before, but could not bear to look at it; it seemed so repulsive to my mind. Now the lady produced two nails and I examined them with interest while I held the picture of the crucifixion before me. She began to relate the story by stretching her arms as in the picture and touching the palms of both hands with the nails to denote that Jesus was nailed to the cross in this way. I measured the nails with my little hands and found they were much longer than my hands. Then I looked earnestly into the lady's sad face and tried to find out if the nails used on the cross were just the same length as the ones in my hand.

Something in the look of that kind lady's face gave me the impression that Jesus was a good man and for that reason was nailed to the cross.

There is an almost untold source of instruction in

pictures. Scenes from the Bible illustrated in books become so familiar to the child that when he first learns language the scriptural stories seem to rise, one after another, clear before him as they are related by the teacher. They link him with his home and Sunday-school.

A baptism in church or the river is always fraught with interest. Nothing is more picturesque or awe-inspiring than the sight of a man in a dark garb standing waist-deep in water with face turned heavenward. After witnessing such ceremonies the story of John the Baptist will never grow old or lose its charm.

Also the ceremonies of the Roman Catholic Church produce a lasting impression on the deaf child.

To illustrate how much Sunday-school may do to influence an untaught deaf child, an incident which happened in the childhood of a graduate of Gallaudet College will be told in his own words :

“ When I became deaf in childhood I knew nothing about the Divine Being until I went to Sunday-school. In course of time new ideas began to present themselves unconsciously to my mind. To make the story short, one day a playmate of an adventurous turn of mind proposed that I should accompany him ‘to see something exciting’ that was going to happen far away from home. The whole town seemed to turn out to witness the event; the road was thronged with people wending their way in that direction.

“ With all the speed possible we set out and in a short time found ourselves beginning a long, wearisome tramp. We were hardly on the road, when we got separated from each other and lost in the crowd, not to meet again for several days. I followed the people hour after hour. At last the crowd disappeared, and I was left far behind. I began to realize that I had walked too far to retrace my steps. The day being far advanced it was out of the question to return home. I was so worn out I could

scarcely go any farther. Every now and then I would notice a lone traveler coming in a wagon or carriage. With new hope I approached and begged him for a ride. The only answer was a shake of the head.

“What was I to do? I stood crying, thinking, looking around. All of a sudden came before my mind the pictures of children in the attitude of prayer, that I used to look at in Sunday-school and at home. Though at the time I had hardly given them a thought, then I remembered them as vividly as if I saw them that moment. The expressions in their upturned faces and their clenched hands told the story plainer than words; they had evidently wandered away from home and got lost in the country.

“I thought, too, of the way my mother used to pray at home. I remembered that whenever she was in trouble or sorrow she would repair to her room to seek consolation and peace in prayer. After that she would be about her household duties again with a different expression in her face—an expression of cheerfulness and resignation. Another thing was noticeable; it was her custom to take her place near the window of her bed-room when on her knees. I used to watch her and wonder why she occupied the same place and no other. The impression conveyed to my mind was that God could not see any one unless he was at the window or out in the open air. I imagined that if I only assumed the attitude of the children in the pictures or my mother at home I would find some way out of the trouble. So, without hesitation, down I went on my knees in the muddy road. I clasped my hands and looked up to heaven, hoping for an answer. I then forgot all my trouble. I made no signs; not even a single thought came into my head. I arose strengthened and hopeful. Instinct told me to go on.

“A short walk brought me in sight of a village.

“A young man, an entire stranger to me, on the other side of the street, watched me closely. He seemed to re-

member having met me somewhere. Then he crossed to where I was and beckoned me to follow him. Having secured something for me to eat he left me in charge of the storekeeper and soon returned with a tall, elderly man with a great whip in hand who was about to depart with his empty wood-boxes (for he was a wood-vender) for the town whence I came. The evening being damp and chilly, the wood-vender placed me in one of his big boxes and made me as comfortable as he could.

“Needless to say, my happiness was complete on getting back home again safely.

“I never doubted as a child but that this safe arrival home was all due to my devotional attitude, for I did not know enough to express myself in prayer. Truly—

“Prayer is the soul's sincere desire
Uttered or unexpressed;
The motion of a hidden fire
That trembles in the breast.”

The mind of the average deaf child does not begin to develop until he is from five to seven years old. Even holding him back a few years longer is no waste of time; everything is utilized by nature. We must be content to follow and assist it. It requires time for the child to develop and grow strong. He is naturally impatient of restraint; the instinct of freedom is developing within him. It is unnatural for him to be burdened with study and discipline.

Why take a child so young from home when there is so much instruction to be gained there with little or no effort on his part, and when his time is so profitably employed in play? In games, he learns to be just, fair, honest, and generous, and to respect others' property. Every trifle has weight with him. There are some children in whom refinement is innate, yet all children should be surrounded by refining influences. A deaf child is as capable of learning refinement at home as the hearing child.

In the country, the woods, the menagerie, the zoological garden, the deaf child receives his first lessons in natural history. Otherwise the study will have little charm or interest for him when he takes it up at school.

What he needs is not book-learning but play. Play is neither idleness nor folly. It is a gift from God ; it is one of his wonderful works. It lays the groundwork of the child's education. It is the mainspring of his whole being. With the love for play in his breast no child is ever poor nor without the means of making his life beautiful and happy. Play is his very life and soul. It is his inborn instinct to be out in the open air and have his body in endless motion. Thus he is made strong for the work that lies before him in life.

A deaf person is at a greater disadvantage than other members of society. He has to work much harder for all that he is and has. His path is beset with difficulties. It requires will and strength—almost superhuman efforts—to overcome such obstacles.

It not infrequently happens that the loss of hearing affects the child's health as well as his mind, and that the sickness leaves him weak and delicate for several years.

Therefore the greater care should be exercised with a very young deaf child. Give him all the time he needs to play, that he may grow strong and be fitted for the higher and broader life of school.

Let book-education alone. There is no use in hurrying a child on. There is plenty of time. Education will come in time to "the sound mind in the sound body."

True, there are disadvantages in retaining a child at home when his parents are ignorant and have little or no ambition. But the majority of poor parents are capable of bringing up their children in the way they should go. As a matter of experience it can be affirmed that quite young children can be trained to amuse themselves. The children of the poor learn this lesson of necessity.

Some wise man has said truly that to be poor is the best blessing a young person can have. It gives sturdiness and compels him to make the most of himself. This is evidenced by the fact that a majority of the best scholars in our schools come from the poorer classes. As a rule such children are ambitious, independent, reliant, and full of push. Best of all, the desire to be of use in the world is inherent in their character.

The condition of poor deaf children is better now than in the last generation. They live in greater security and a purer atmosphere of morality. In these days of Kings' Daughters, Christian Endeavorers, etc., it is rare to find a deaf child who has no advantages, or is not placed by some religious association in the way of improvement.

All over the country are found deaf children attending Sunday-schools, sometimes the public schools and also kindergartens, merely for diversion. Experience has convinced us that those who have had such training always have an advantage at school over those who have been entirely neglected.

In many localities homes are provided for children whose parents are sick, or who are of necessity compelled to work during the day. Such children, otherwise, would receive no attention. Ought not a deaf child as well as a hearing child to derive benefit from such a source? Truly those institutions are a veritable Godsend to the deaf children of the poor.

Again, the playground is a little world. It is the dearest spot to the child's heart. He longs for it. His joys are concentrated in it. He holds undisputed sway over it; it is there he has the fullest freedom and is at his best.

Gardening also is one of the occupations Froebel would have us "foster most carefully." "By it the child gains his first glimpses of the wonders and beauties of nature; in it he watches the working of an unseen power; through it he learns to love labor, to use labor for the pleasure

and good of others, and gains for himself a first touch of a sense of duty and responsibility."

To-day the facilities of transportation are such that almost any child can be reached without difficulty. Visit the deaf child often and you will be putting light into his life. Help to give him a happy childhood. He may carry most pleasant memories of your kindness all through life.

THEODORE A. KIESEL,
Instructor in the Kendall School, Washington, D. C.

THE COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN THE OHIO INSTITUTION.*

IN this volume of only 150 pages, one finds concentrated and condensed a wonderful amount of work, the outcome of painstaking, conscientious thought, and of long experience, wisely and ably utilized.

For the school-rooms there is prescribed a course of instruction, covering a period of twelve years. Each year has its separate list of articles and books to be provided for the class and for the special use of the teacher himself. For each there are clear and precise directions for instruction in manners, in morals, in religion, in language, in arithmetic, in articulation, in reading, and in drawing, and these for each of the three school terms. That all this mass of matter, so valuable in itself, so essential to teacher and pupil—this *multum in parvo*—should have been concentrated into a book so comparatively small, so easily handled, so conveniently arranged for use and reference, is as surprising to the reader appreciative of its value as it is creditable to the wise thoughtfulness and the practical good sense of the authors.

In addition to the "Manual for the School," is the

* Course of Instruction for the School and the Shops, and Manual for the Teacher, prepared for the Ohio Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, by JOHN W. JONES, Superintendent, and ROBERT PATTERSON, Principal.

“Manual for the Shops,” prescribing courses of instruction until the end of the sixth year in the various trades taught in the Ohio Institution.

It goes without saying that this volume of Messrs. Jones and Patterson will prove invaluable in the work carried on in the great establishment under their charge, with its multifarious departments, its numerous corps of instructors, and its infinite variety of moral and intellectual instruction to be imparted.

It will bring harmonious, systematic, and successful results where without it there might be more or less friction and clashing of diverse methods of school-room work, with consequent loss of time, labor, and money. Each teacher, while not necessarily sacrificing such individuality as he conceives is beneficial in his work, cannot but realize that he is only a part in a great harmonious whole, and strive earnestly for the highest and broadest success.

But for other schools for the deaf, whether or not they are of the size and prominence of the Ohio school, whether or not they have the same facilities for grading studies and for classification of pupils, whether or not they follow the same methods in language or articulation, whether they are manual, oral, or eclectic, this book ought also to prove invaluable. It is as full of useful and one may say indispensable suggestions—pointers—to the teacher of the deaf as an egg is full of meat; no teacher that has this volume on his desk and that scans its pages for help and instruction can fail to do better work in his classroom than ever before, for however bright, learned, or experienced he may be, he will be sure to learn something new; though, like Mr. J. L. Smith in his highly commendatory review of a previous edition of the same work,* he might find here and there points for criticism and dissent.

JAMES DENISON,
Principal of the Kendall School, Washington, D. C.

**Annals*, xxxvii, 48-53.

THE SPIRITUAL PHASE OF THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF.

**“That men may rise on stepping stones
Of their dead selves to higher things.”**

THAT the leading educators of this country are gradually awakening to the vital importance of spiritualizing education in most of its departments is a worthy object of attention. It is becoming more and more evident that modern education has had a growing tendency to “obscure the delicate ideals and cheapen all motives.” It is largely due, in this utilitarian age, not only to the excessive study of material things but to the intense spirit of investigation interwoven with the fascinating theory of evolution. It is also noteworthy that while the presidents and professors of some of the leading colleges and universities dwell with special emphasis upon the paramount importance of spiritualizing the education of their students, that of the deaf needs spiritualizing far more on the ground that their ears are forever closed to the sweet inspiring melodies of nature, and a great many of them do not seem sensibly alive to the fact that they are encompassed by spiritual potentialities. In them we see possibilities of noble full-orbed manhood and womanhood, but, sad to say, they are warped or undeveloped from previous neglect, lack of kindly judicious encouragement, callous indifference of their friends at home as regards their spiritual welfare, their misconceptions of the Bible, and other causes too well known to need further enumeration. Professor Arnold Tompkins, one of our noted educators, in his recent lecture on “Popular Education” near here, epitomized its aims, “The purpose of all education is to know God.” In the concluding chapter of his interesting work on “Philosophy of Teaching,” the author also quotes Archbishop Farrar as stating the true end of education ;

“The object of education is that we may learn to see and know God here and glorify Him in heaven hereafter.”

Intellectual training has, nowadays, become a great power toward which everything else gravitates, evidently at the expense of spiritual growth. The best, highest, and noblest equipment is the demand of the age. It has its uses, good and evil. Spiritual power, not only to pray and believe, but also to think right, act right, live right, and rightly discern all things, temporal and spiritual, is the only thing needful for the spiritual growth, development, and maturity of man, and also for the illumination of the intellect and for the beautifully symmetrical rounding-out of character. When that is attained we can joyously exclaim with the Psalmist of Israel, “Mark the perfect man.”

Obviously, this is an era of mighty spiritual awakening which is ever broadening and deepening. It is to be most fervently and earnestly hoped that it will steadily go on broadening and deepening until the knowledge of the glory of God may cover the earth as the waters cover the sea.

The aim of this paper is to make teachers of deaf children better acquainted with the spiritual condition of deaf adults after leaving school, and also to awaken in them a deeper and more earnest desire for the spiritual growth of the pupils entrusted to their care. This is, I firmly believe, essential to their future happiness after leaving school to grapple with the stern realities of life, for which many of them find themselves at the outset poorly equipped.

Some time ago, while deeply interested in reading Professor Tompkins's “Philosophy of Teaching,” in which the author emphasizes the importance of spiritualizing education, I could not help sighing for a return of the days when I was a teacher of the deaf, being led into this train of thought; “If I had my life to live over again I would

employ a different method of teaching. My teaching days are beyond recall; yet I desire to help the teachers see and realize, as I have seen and realized, the spiritual condition of the deaf who exist in this serious, earnest, hard-working world. It is often said that teachers have the same varying degrees of ability that business men possess. Their successes are mainly the measure of their ability to do their work effectively. I taught according to my ability and walked according to my light as many of the teachers are, doubtless, teaching according to their ability and walking according to their light." I embodied a few of these thoughts in a letter to a distant friend who showed it to another friend whose name is too well known in the hearing and deaf world to need blazoning on these pages. It was at his suggestion that I am writing this article for the *Annals*.

Since severing my connection with a school for the deaf fourteen years ago and becoming a farmer's wife in a remote country district, I have had opportunities of knowing deaf people who after leaving school have taken up the burdens of life more or less heroically according to the influence of their widely differing environments and the great variety of their mental temperaments. The more I have watched and studied their characters, feelings, aims, ambitions, and habits, the more deeply I have become convinced that there is something sadly wanting in many of them, viz., they are deficient in the faculty of adjusting themselves wisely and properly to the varied relations of life; they lack strength to bear the common strain of life.

Some of them through fortunate circumstances, superior mental training, or natural endowments, are well prepared to fight the battles of life manfully and successfully. But I am speaking of a large class of this people who are compelled by the force of circumstances beyond their control, or by unfavorable home environment, to drag a

painfully dull, colorless, and purposeless existence day by day, year by year, in remote out-of-the-way places, especially in isolated country districts, with few or no consolations of religion to cheer them on and strengthen them in their unequal struggles.

Truly it takes more patient endurance and uncomplaining heroism than teachers think to lead such lives as theirs. Generally speaking, they suffer more from want of sweet human sympathy, kindly encouragement, and cheerful companionship than anything else, as many of them are debarred, by lack of means or long distances, from the society of their fellow beings similarly afflicted. Also, they are shut out from the blessed privilege of attending divine services such as are held in Chicago, St. Louis, and other cities. What is true of them must be true of other deaf people similarly circumstanced in various rural parts of this country. Their isolation is something painful to contemplate.

True, they have received careful instruction and religious training, and attended divine services regularly during their school days. Notwithstanding this fact many of them show inability to read the Bible understandingly and with spiritual profit, except the familiar texts which they remember having seen their principal or teachers expound in chapel. They are also familiar with the Bible stories which were narrated in graphic and sometimes dramatic style, as one of them cynically described one teacher's peculiar style of delivery. Apart from these, they seem unable to comprehend the deeper spiritual side to those Bible teachings.

Generally speaking, they are left out in the cold, so far as church services attended by hearing people are concerned; hence their drifting away from the hallowed influences of church or Sunday-school. No wonder they lapse into a state of utter indifference to spiritual things, which is not only painful to witness, but unavoidably

ing them to a higher spiritual plane: "all judgeth all things." If filled with the Holy Spirit, they may become enabled to gain a knowledge of spiritual things and thus become a blessing to the world.

Our I am becoming more and more pronounced, as nothing else has impressed me in the past. The great need of an indwelling Christ is the mainspring of their every-day lives. A pervading and abiding principle ought to be ingrained in their natures.

It is a mistake to hold that instruction should be merely a means to an end or that education is merely a means to an end.

One of the best ways to awaken and quicken in deaf children their character-building period at school is to have them take the greatest interest in the Bible, which will grow with their strength, and ripen with their age. It is one that should engage the serious attention of the teachers. Memorizing verses, studying Sunday-school lessons, attending the place of Divine worship, attending prayer-meetings, reciting hymns, and paying respectful, and often rapt attention to the teachers when they are expounding some text or telling some Bible story in an attractive manner are, indeed, excellent in themselves, and are often fruitful of much good; but, more than these things put together, something ought to be done toward enabling them more clearly to comprehend the spirituality of the Bible and the permeating love of God. Carlyle says of the spirit, "It is the interior of the Holiest of Holies." Luther clearly defines it as the highest, noblest part of man, by which he is enabled to apprehend incomprehensible, invisible, eternal, and is, in short, the house where faith and God's Spirit dwell." Howson truly observes, "The great want of our souls is an inward spiritual life."

The teachers of the deaf have before them a mission of greater magnitude and graver responsibility than that of the teachers of hearing children. As fully and thoroughly as they understand the laws that govern physical growth should they understand the laws of spiritual growth before they try to plant the seeds in the natures of their pupils. These laws they can never understand unless they are transformed by the mighty power from on High. They should make it their chief study how to awaken in the souls of their pupils the deepest cravings for virtue, truth, beauty, and purity, and also how to inspire them with "a passion for righteousness which shall press toward absolute satisfaction." If they were only invested with the power of lifting the veil of the future and looking far out into each life of their pupils, and if they were fully capable of clearly and deeply appreciating the fact that "each wave of influence set up in the pupil circles out to the other shore," they would surely and unmistakably understand the true meaning, the full opportunity, and the fearful responsibility of every teaching act. Each deaf child bears the imprint of highest spiritual possibilities. Some of the loveliest spirits and finest natures ever born on earth are found among the deaf.

We all know the full force of the old adage, "As the teacher so the pupil." What is true of hearing children is especially true of deaf children. They not only copy their teachers in manner, air, bearing, and style of conversation, but also their minds unconsciously take on the form, tone, and coloring of their teachers' minds.

How fearfully grave is the responsibility of the teachers who not only build their thought-structure into the minds of their pupils, but also unconsciously breathe into them the breath of their ethical nature—refined or coarse, spiritual or earthly. The teacher who lacks strength and purity of character cannot be expected to strengthen and purify the character of his pupils, however brilliant his

mental attainments may be or however gifted he may be in imparting language. The teacher who possesses and enjoys a full, rich, and varied range of spiritual life, can feel with his pupils the higher life into which they are being born under his guidance. He can constantly and unweariedly keep in close touch with them in learning their new experiences in spiritual life, as their unfolding faculties carry them through the period of their school term. When their spiritual feeling is fully and permanently awakened, they become able to rise out of their dead selves, above the low level of sensuous and sensual pleasures, the petty annoyances, corroding worriments, and sad, tangling perplexities of life into the realm of spiritual life—the realm of pure, noble, and lofty ideas. Then they become fitted for life's duties and fortified to "stand four-square to all the winds that blow." They should be taught to discern the wide difference between animal pleasure and spiritual joy. The close analogies of physical life to spiritual life and of physical freedom to spiritual freedom should be elucidated in such a manner as to shut out the possibility of mistaken impressions and confused, misty ideas of the Bible teachings. The importance of cultivating the beautiful spirit of sweet, sympathetic helpfulness, refined considerateness for the rights and feelings of those around them, magnanimity, true courtesy, and gentleness, should be impressed upon their minds.

Above all they should learn to be true and loyal to themselves and their principles; then they can become true and unswervingly loyal to God and their friends, especially their benefactors. Every care should be taken to strengthen the tendency to become not only truth-lovers, but diligent truth-seekers. So shall they bear the fruits of the Bible teachings in after years. True, they cannot build churches or organize Sunday-schools, or muster a regiment of Christian Endeavorers or Epworth

Leaguers in hearing communities, but instead of being nonentities, weakly succumbing to the deadening influence of environment, and sinking down into the belief that they are of no use in the world, they can make their character felt upon those who come in contact with them, and become the centre of healthful, refining, uplifting, and ennobling influence. The beauty of a holy life is more potent and far-reaching in its influences than the most eloquent preaching.

We need the best teachers obtainable for deaf children, not only intellectually equipped, but endued with spiritual power and permeated with the love of Christ. Influence is sure to multiply in proportion as unity of purpose and harmony is gained among this kind of teachers. Cultivate the spirit of comradeship as much as possible, without allowing it to deteriorate into that sort of familiarity which breeds contempt among the pupils for those teachers who belittle themselves by frittering away their valuable time and discrediting the good done by others.

The pupils, thus rightly grounded in lofty principles, will rise to bless the faithful, conscientious, and self-consecrated teachers, who have laid all their gifts on the altar of sacrifice (the altar sanctifies the gift) in leading them in the path of righteousness, peace, joy, and trustfulness to the knowledge of the redeeming love of Christ.

“ It is the heart, and not the brain,
That to the highest doth attain :
And he that follows Love's behest
Far excelleth all the rest.”

NAOMI S. DARE,
Hortonville, Indiana.

NOTES ON MANUAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.*—III.

Dr. W. Hanover, of Delavan, Wisconsin, who has made the nervous system a special study, was much interested in my article in the *Annals* for February, 1899, on "The Relation of the Hand to Mental Development." Last winter, when Mr. E. A. Bending, Principal of the Dayton, Ohio, Manual Training School, delivered a lecture in Delavan on that subject, he caused to be thrown on a screen a diagram illustrating the manner of impression and expression as related to brain development. Dr. Hanover remarked to me afterwards that he thought that diagram could be much improved, and said that if I would send a good draughtsman to his office he would have him make a copy of what he thought would better express the idea. Accordingly Mr. A. C. Bloodgood, instructor in carpentry and cabinet making at the Wisconsin School for the Deaf, very kindly offered to make the drawing. Upon its completion, Dr. Hanover presented it to me, with the following explanation and opinion :

"In recording my views regarding Manual Training, it is my purpose to confine my remarks to only one phase of the question, viz., the power the action of the hand exerts in the development of the higher faculties of the brain.

"It is now an admitted fact that each cell in the brain possesses an individuality, or, in other words, each cell controls some peculiar function. These cells are silent and indefatigable workers, discreetly elaborating those nervous forces which are incessantly expended in all directions, and in the most varied manners according to the different calls made upon them ; and they are in perfect harmony with each other and their neighboring cells.

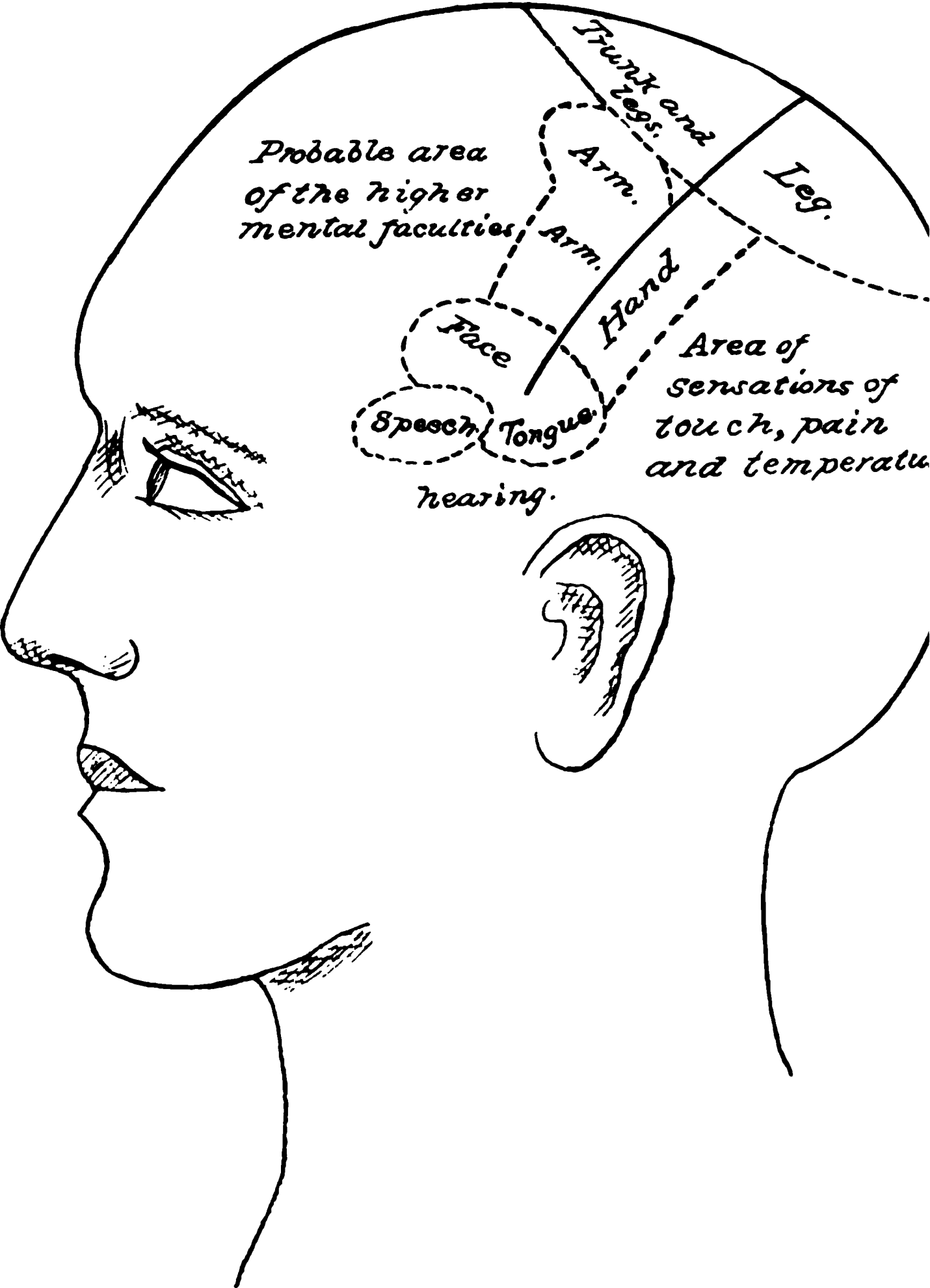
*Continued from the February number of the *Annals*, page 145.

MODES OF IMPRESSION.

- 1. Hearing.
- 2. Seeing.
- 3. Feeling.
- 4. Tasting.
- 5. Smelling.
- 6. Temperature sense.

MODES OF EXPRESSION.

- | | | |
|------------|---|-----------------------------------|
| I. TONGUE. | { | 1. Language (spoken). |
| | | 2. Music (vocal). |
| II. HAND. | { | 1. Mechanic arts. |
| | | 2. Sculpture. |
| | | 3. Painting. |
| | | 4. Architecture. |
| | | 5. Music (instrumental). |
| | | 6. Language (written or printed). |



From A. L. Ranney's "Lectures on Nervous Diseases."

“ In the child at birth these cells are free from impressions, and are as clear as a sensitized photographic plate before it has been exposed to the action of the lenses of the camera. It is easy to see how impressions from without may beautify or disfigure these delicate but wonderful receptacles. For months and years the brain of the child is receiving and storing up in these mysterious tabernacles the impressions of the exterior world that reach it chiefly by means of the organs of sight, smell, hearing, taste and touch, or the action of the hand.

“ Each organ has its separate and well-defined area or centre, and to the centre is despatched each impression as it is recorded through its own special sense.

“ This is exemplified when we reflect that the eye telegraphs the outline, coloring, and other details of every picture focused by its lenses upon the retina, to the cells situated in the occipital lobes of the cerebral hemisphere, and that these cells retain these impressions in such a manner that they can be recalled by a voluntary effort again and again as memories of what we have seen. If this centre in the occipital lobes is injured or destroyed, the sense of sight is lost immediately, notwithstanding the eyes themselves are perfect.

“ Thus it is obvious that the cells are increased and developed by the use of the various senses, and by this increase and development they become co-operative as they in turn supply a stimulus or force which keeps alive the function of the special sense.

“ In studying the areas of the special senses and their positions, it will be noticed that the hand and arm occupy a great area, and that this area is inseparably connected with that of the higher faculty. This juxtaposition of the hand area with that of the higher intellectual centre goes to prove that the hand by Divine intention was to take a great part in the development of that centre.

“ Therefore we must remember that, when the hand is

intelligently instructed, it transmits directly to the cells of higher intelligence a like impression which materially aids in the development of cells which might forever remain quiescent.

“The intellectual training of the hand called manual training is the ideal system, as it is in unison with nature’s laws, and when properly understood and faithfully carried out will be the means of lessening the number of our degenerates.”

WARREN ROBINSON,
Instructor in the Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wisconsin.

THE LEARNING OF PRINT BY THE DEAF-BLIND.

THE *Annals* for January, 1900, published some notes of mine on the facility with which Katie M’Girr, a deaf-blind girl at Fanwood, learned a new print for the blind. To still further demonstrate the incorrectness of the statement that the blind *always* have great trouble in learning new prints, I wish to say that Katie recently learned the alphabet and read one page of “Lucas” print in thirty-six minutes. “Lucas” is an obsolete system, entirely different from any other, and unknown in this country, so far as I know. Katie now knows Line Letter, Moon, American Braille, English Braille, New York Point, and Lucas, being one more print than any other person in the world knows, and I think I am warranted in “crowing” a little over one of my deaf-blind pets being at the head. I earnestly hope that teachers of deaf-blind pupils in our deaf schools will not be gulled with the erroneous claim that knowing more than one print *always* confuses the blind and is a task of such vast difficulty.

WILLIAM WADE.
Oakmont, Pennsylvania.

THE USE OF THE MICROPHONOGRAPH IN THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF.—I.

[Three years ago the microphonograph, an apparatus invented by Dr. F. Dussaud, of Geneva, Switzerland, which, it was said, increased very much the intensity of sounds, was capable of restoring the deaf to hearing, and was destined to revolutionize the methods of deaf-mute instruction, was introduced to the French public. It was exhibited before learned societies: a man previously supposed to be totally deaf listened with delight to the strains of music conveyed through the instrument and beat time to the tune; physicians gave it their approval; it was praised in medical and scientific journals as well as in popular magazines and newspapers. Finally, it was thoroughly tested at the National Institution for the Deaf in Paris; with what result the following report of the Committee shows. The report was presented and unanimously adopted at a meeting of the Instructors of that Institution, and was afterwards published in *La Voix Parlée et Chantée* for June and July, 1899. It is translated for the *Annals* by Miss ELIZABETH PEET, Instructor in Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.—E. A. F.]

GENTLEMEN: The work of education to which you are devoting yourselves must be benefited largely by the progress which has been made in some of the most important branches of science. Above all other questions those which relate to the great problem of human language, whether in its relations with acoustics, psychology, or physiology, attract in the highest degree your ever lively interest. It was, therefore, natural that your attention should be drawn to a recently invented apparatus—the microphonograph—which ever since its appearance has raised the most earnest discussions and animated controversies.

This subject was brought before you, in one of your preceding meetings, by the new director of this school, who is always in search of anything which can better the condition of our pupils. You then decided to name a committee which should make experiments with the microphonograph, and study the use of this instrument in the education of deaf-mutes. This committee was com-

telligent men on the employment of the microphonograph in the education of the deaf.*

The proposition is nothing less than to substitute for our methods, called artificial, which make use of sight and of touch, a natural method, which will have recourse only to the ear in teaching mechanical speech to the unfortunates deprived of hearing.

At a time of the school year when the teaching of analytical articulation was nearly finished in our elementary classes, it was not feasible to put directly to the proof of experiment this idea, which was as little complicated in its form as it seemed attractive in the results it promised. It was not impossible, however, to reach the desired end in an indirect way. In fact, if the microphonograph, as is asserted, is able to bestow speech upon the wholly uninstructed deaf-mute, how much more should it restore the hearing of language to the deaf person who has become capable, through our instruction, of pronouncing every word in the language and of reading aloud any sentence whatsoever.

In order to solve this vital question, the Committee proceeded in the following manner.

I.—ORGANIZATION OF THE EXPERIMENTS.

1. Choice of pupils. 2. Choice of exercises.

1. *Choice of pupils.*—It was necessary to try the instrument with a group of pupils each of whom had a different amount of hearing.

It is well known that it is very difficult, we might even say impossible, to estimate exactly the auditory perception. We were limited, therefore, on this point, to making a

* "It is, in a word, the normal learning of speech by the *audible mechanism* which is naturally there, made possible and easy by the new apparatus. . . . We have still to find the practical method which should be used in this instruction."—Dr. Laborde, in *Tribune Médicale*, January 26, 1898.

simple classification of the different persons who were to take part in the exercise.

To do this, we first made use of information furnished by their teachers. Then we proceeded to make comparisons by means of the voice alone.

The pupils undergoing the examination were arranged in a single row, and behind them one of us pronounced with varying force, according to the needs of the experiment, the principal vowels. At other times, the children having previously closed their eyes, the instructor placed himself upon the prolongation of the axis of hearing of the pupil observed. The distance at which the children perceived the different sounds constituted a valuable element of comparison. With those the least deaf, this first experiment was followed by trials relating to the hearing of words and phrases.

Thanks to these different methods the Committee succeeded in forming two groups of eight pupils each, who included, as accurately as possible, the same elements of hearing, and who formed altogether a fairly complete gradation of deafness, from those whom we designate vaguely as semi-deaf to those whom we consider as being totally without hearing.

It was decided *by drawing lots* that the pupils of the first group should be tried by the microphonograph, and those of the second by the voice alone.

2. *Choice of exercises.*—After the first experiments it was necessary to recognize that analytical hearing* could not be aided greatly by the microphonograph. Accordingly, the following exercises, which were registered on the wax cylinders, were composed—independently of words and phrases—only of the vowels *a, i, o, é, e*, and the consonants *p, l, r, ch, c*.

* We thus designate the hearing of separate phonetic elements (vowels or consonants) and syllables without meaning to the child, in distinction from the *synthetic* hearing of words and phrases whose meaning the child is able to understand.

Cylinder 1.—*a, i, a, a, i, i, i, a, i*—*le tableau, l'ardoise, la craie, le porte-plume, etc.*—*De quel pays es-tu ? Que fait ton père ? etc.*

Cylinder 2.—*La carotte, le macaroni, etc.*—*a, é, prolonged—é, é, a, a, a, é, a, é,—pa, pé, pé, pé, pa, è, a, etc.,—apa, ala, ala, apa, ala, "ca, apa, aca, aca.*

Cylinder 3.—*a, o, è, e, prolonged,—a, o, é, e, combined in different ways—pa, po, pé, pe, ditto,—pa, po, pé, pe grouped in double syllables—pa, la, ra, ca, ditto—le parapluie, le parloir, etc.*

Cylinder 4.—*Bon jour, madame,*—and other very simple phrases.

Cylinder 5.—The vowels *a, o, é, e*, combined in every manner.

Cylinder 6.—The consonants *r, l, r, ch* (*apa, ala,*) following each other at hazard, and repeated a great many times.

Cylinder 7.—Ten simple words, repeated a great many times, and following each other at random.

The Committee decided that the same exercises should be gone over with the pupils whose aural education was to be carried on by means of the voice alone.

It was also decided, at the very beginning, that each one of the pupils in the two groups (that of the microphonograph and that of the voice) should practice for fifteen minutes every day, under the direction of a member of the Committee.

All the instructors of the Institution were allowed to be present at the experiments.

II.—RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENTS.

1. Comparative table.—2. Additional observations: (*a*) analytical exercises; (*b*) hearing of music; (*c*) changes of intensity; (*d*) improvement in keenness of hearing; (*e*) class teaching.

I have summed up in the following table the observations which we made on each one of the pupils subjected to the experiments:

TABLE OF RESULTS OBTAINED.

BY THE MICROPHONOGRAPH.			BY THE VOICE.		
STATE OF HEARING.			STATE OF HEARING.		
Names of pupils in the order of decrease of hearing.	Before the experiments.	After the experiments.	Names of pupils in the order of decrease of hearing.	Before the experiments.	After the experiments.
1 Bé— (5th year)...	Understands through the ear all that he is able to read on the lips.	Recognizes fairly well by the instrument the registered words and phrases; mistakes are quite frequent, however, although the exercises are made exclusively of words and phrases which are easily understood from the voice alone.	1 Léw— (5th year).	Same as Bé— (No. 1 under the microphonograph).	Understands, even in a whisper, all the words and phrases whose meaning he already knows. However, he makes many mistakes in analysis; <i>sa</i> for <i>da</i> or for <i>ga</i> , <i>da</i> for <i>ga</i> , <i>bapa</i> for <i>bata</i> , <i>aa</i> for <i>la</i> , etc.
2 La— (4th year)...	Possesses hearing considerably inferior to No. 1. Distinguishes some words and a certain number of vowels and consonants.	Succeeds in recognizing, by the microphonograph, about 15 words which he has always distinguished more easily without the aid of the apparatus. Hasty trials with the voice alone show that acquisitions made in this way are more easy and numerous than by the microphonograph.	2 Ma— (4th year) ..	Perceptibly superior to La— (No. 2 of microphonograph) in amount of hearing preserved.	Understands all that is said close to the ear, without the voice being raised, on condition, of course, that only the idiomatic forms and vocabulary he knows are used. Analytical hearing defective: <i>chapo</i> for <i>foto</i> ; <i>pa</i> for <i>la</i> ; <i>cha</i> for <i>sa</i> ; <i>cafo</i> for <i>caco</i> , etc.
3 Mo— (2d year)....	Hears at a distance of about 3 meters the vowel sound (<i>a</i>) pronounced in a tone of average intensity. The open vowels are distinguished from the closed. The consonants <i>p</i> , <i>t</i> , <i>r</i> , are differentiated. Recognizes 3 or 4 words by the voice alone.	Distinguishes in the microphonograph, although with some difficulty, 10 words, more or less. Same observations as for La— (No. 2) concerning the voice alone.	3 Ca— (5th year)...	Like Mo— (No. 3 of microphonograph).	Recognizes about 12 words, as well as the vowels and consonants of which the exercises were made up (See page 499.)

4	Leb— (3d year)...	Perceives the sound of the voice of average intensity at about 1 meter. Almost no phonetic differentiations.	Recognizes in the instrument 2 or 3 words with great difficulty and doubtfully.	4	Y— (2d year).....	Like Leb— (No. 4 of microphonograph).	Understands some words. Distinguishes, 2 by 2, the vowels a, u, e, and the consonants p, b, r, given together.
5	Qui— (2d year).	Hears the sound of the voice (vowel a, with average intensity) at 15 centimeters from the ear; no differentiation.	No results.*	5	Da— (3d year).	Like Qui— (No. 5 of microphonograph).	Distinguishes between a and i; recognizes the three following words: <i>le tableau</i> , <i>l'ardoise</i> , <i>la porte-plume</i> .
6	De— (7th year).	Hears the sound of the voice (vowel a, with average intensity) close to the ear. No differentiation.	No results.*	6	Lep— (7th year).	Like De— (No. 6 of microphonograph).	Distinguishes from one another the phonetic elements, or the syllabic groups comprising several series of words, vowels, or consonants, provided that one does not compare more than 3 elements or 3 words (o, u, ei— <i>ardoise</i> , <i>chapeau</i> , <i>parapluie</i> .)
7	R— (6th year).	Perceives vocal sound (vowel a, very loud intensity) very close to the ear. No differentiation.	No results.*	7	Leb - (6th year).	Like R— (No. 7 of microphonograph).	Distinguishes 3 words (<i>tableau</i> , <i>ardoise</i> , <i>porte-plume</i>) spoken very loudly into the ear.
8	Ba— (additional course of instruction : 9th year).	Hears with difficulty a very loud shout close to the ear. No differentiation.	No results.*	8	Ga— (7th year.)	Like Ba— (No. 8 of microphonograph.)	Repeating the experiments of J. R. Péreire, M. Dupont tried to make a difference between a certain number of sounds and words by speaking into the hand of the pupil. In this way Ga— gained the same results which were obtained with Leb— (No. 6) by means of the ear. Ga— can really distinguish by the ear 2 or 3 words.

* These 4 last pupils perceive the sound produced by the instrument, inasmuch as they mark the interruptions, but they do not succeed in making any differentiation.

2. Additional Observations.

(a) *The analytical exercises.*—The analytical exercises composed of the vowels *a, o, é, i*, and of those consonants most easy to distinguish (*p, l, r, ch*), practiced on the microphonograph, gave no results with seven (out of eight) pupils. Bé— alone (No. 1) succeeded in catching the most marked differences, but he often made mistakes, and confused, for example, *ada* and *ala*, *afa* and *apa*, even though those syllabic combinations are easily distinguished when given by the voice alone.

(b) *The hearing of music.*—Experiments with hearing of singing and of instrumental music gave rise to no interesting observation, nor to any notable improvement in hearing.

(c) *Changes of intensity.*—Increasing the intensity, within the limits of the apparatus, did not seem to affect the results concerning the ability to *interpret* the sounds. Whether one, two, or three electrical elements were used, the sum of the sounds distinguished did not vary perceptibly.

(d) *Improvement in keenness of hearing.*—In no pupil have we marked an appreciable improvement in the distance at which a sound could be heard. In other words, the distance at which a given sound was first heard was not altered to any great extent during the course of the acoustic exercises, whether these were conducted by the microphonograph or by the voice.

(e) *Class teaching.*—The first group of pupils (those of the microphonograph), was divided into three sections, composed as follows: 1st, Bé— and La—; 2d, Mo—, Leb—, and Qui—; 3d, De—, R—, and Ba—. The pupils of the same section practiced at the same time. We must recognize, nevertheless, that, because of the inequality which exists among our pupils quite as much in regard to hearing as in regard to the knowledge of language, class

teaching does not seem very practical. As it will always be difficult to form, among children of the same class or of the same age, a section of partially deaf who shall be sufficiently homogeneous, we may say that the instrument really will not allow class instruction to any great extent.

H. MARICHELLE,
Instructor in the National Institution, Paris, France.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

ASSERTED CURES OF DEAFNESS.

DR. MAURY M. STAPLER, of Macon, Georgia, in a letter published in the *Goodson Gazette* of September 15, 1900, asserts that he has "successfully restored to almost perfect hearing and speech" three congenital deaf-mutes, and expresses the belief that "a large percentage" of such cases can be cured. In the *Gazette* of October 1 he announces another cure, effected "in less than two hours." His statements are corroborated by two other physicians of that city. He invites the fullest investigation from physicians and from instructors of the deaf.

We have seen other letters from Dr. Stapler in which he asserted other cures of deafness. In a letter written more than a year ago (June, 1899), he said :

I wish to report the restoration of speech and hearing to Albert Bates of this city, a negro boy about twelve years of age. He came to me for treatment on the 12th of the present month. His mother stated that he could not hear at all, and I found it to be true. Within three days he began to hear and now after two months he hears almost perfectly and speaks several words voluntarily.

Since receiving Dr. Stapler's treatment, Albert Bates has been placed as a pupil in the Georgia School for the Deaf. He says that he received no benefit from the treatment.

On October 5, 1899, Dr. Stapler reported three more cases of "hearing restored" in the following letter :

I send you by mail a group picture of Misses Edith, Mary, and Master Walter Duncan, of Columbia, S. C., three mutes who came to me on August 6, 1899, to have their hearing restored.

They were born entirely deaf and were of course dumb. At the present time they are able to hear and to repeat words spoken into their ears without the use of a trumpet, and to repeat the same in a natural tone of voice. They are graduates of the S. C. School for Mutes and their ages are 21, 16, 14.

In May, 1900, Mr. Duncan, the father of the children mentioned in the foregoing letter, wrote to the Superintendent of the South Carolina Institution :

I beg you to pardon me for keeping the children from school this session. We have been wasting their time with Dr. Stapler, of Macon, Ga., at a great deal of expense and no result. I will send them back to school next fall.

Dr. Stapler seems to have been sincere in his belief that he had succeeded in restoring hearing and speech in all these cases, but the facts above stated do not support his claim.

E. A. F.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Alabama Institute.—Misses Ely and May have resigned, the former to teach in the Colorado School and the latter to be married. They are succeeded by Mr. and Mrs. Weston Jenkins, formerly of the New Jersey School, whom we are very glad to welcome back to the profession. Mr. Jenkins and Mr. Osce Roberts are associated with Mr. Johnson as editors of the *Messenger*.

Arkansas Institute.—Miss Mary Beattie, for some time teacher of art, and last year a primary teacher in the Manual Department, has gone to the Michigan School. Miss Martha G. Vance, from the Northampton School, has been appointed

a teacher in the Oral Department. Miss L. May Crawford, who taught in the Washington State School last year, has returned to this Institute as teacher of physical culture. Miss Lucie Leymer, who had charge of the Kindergarten Department last year, has resigned. The position has not yet been filled.

Cleveland School.—Miss Katherine E. Barry, of the Pennsylvania Institution, has succeeded Miss King as Principal. Miss Minnie C. Krause has resigned her position as Kindergarten teacher to teach at the Northern New York Institution. The pupils taught wholly by the Oral method are now separated from those with whom the Manual Alphabet has been a means of instruction. The latter class has been transferred to the old Rockwell School Building, under the charge of Miss Minnie E. Morris. Speech and writing are the means of instruction used.

Georgia School.—Last year was the fiftieth since the dedication of the first building for the deaf in Georgia, and Mr. Connor celebrates it by publishing in his annual report a history of the School from the beginning, prefaced by a brief history of the education of the deaf in Europe, and illustrated by numerous pictures. The report also contains in addition to the usual matter a list of former pupils and statistics concerning them.

Illinois Institution.—Mr. Thomas Officer, the first Principal of the Institution (1845-1855), died at his home in Council Bluffs, Iowa, September 12, 1900, aged 77. Before going to Illinois Mr. Officer had been a teacher in the Ohio Institution for five years. He was a courteous gentleman, a good teacher, and an able executive, but the unfortunate organization of the Institution during the first eight years of its existence, with the principal and steward independent officers, each responsible directly to the board of directors, interfered seriously with the success of his work. Even after the office of steward had been abolished, bitter feelings of antagonism remained in the board, and Mr. Officer, after vain endeavors to harmonize them, resigned and removed to Council Bluffs, where he engaged in banking. His warm interest in the edu-

cation of the deaf continued. It was largely through his influence that the Iowa School was established at Council Bluffs, and he was twice appointed a member of the board of trustees.

Indiana Institution.—Miss S. Jean Cummings and Miss Edith L. Fulton have resigned their positions as teachers to be married. They are succeeded by Mrs. Margaret Bolyn and Miss Nellie J. Schrock, who have taken a course of instruction in the Indianapolis kindergarten and the Normal Training School in this Institution. Mrs. Bolyn has also taught two years in the Iowa School. Mr. Tunis V. Archer has been appointed Principal of the Oral Department.

Louisiana Institution.—Mr. Richard W. Williams, B. A., a graduate of the Wisconsin School and of Gallaudet College, has been added to the corps of instruction.

Manchester (England) Schools.—Mr. Walter S. Bessant, headmaster, died in September, 1900, in his fifty-fifth year. Mr. Bessant began his work among the deaf in the Yorkshire Institution, under Charles Baker, at the age of fourteen. He was afterwards associated with Thomas Arnold in carrying on his private school at Northampton, England. In 1882 he was appointed senior teacher of the oral classes at the Manchester Schools, and on the retirement of Andrew Patterson, in 1883, was appointed headmaster. Under his administration the Oral and Manual Departments of the Manchester Schools were separated, and he was active not only in developing his own institution, but also in promoting the education of the deaf generally throughout Great Britain.

Manitoba Institution.—An addition to the Institution is in process of erection. It is to be called "McFadden Hall" in honor of the Hon. D. H. McFadden, Minister of Public Works, a warm friend of the deaf, through whose influence, in large part, the appropriation for the new building was obtained. The building will be about 70 feet square, and four stories high. It will contain classrooms, assembly halls, teachers' rooms, dormitories, reading-rooms, dining room, kitchen, and lavatory. A dumb waiter will run the entire height of the building, and a clothes chute will run from the dormitories to the basement. The cost will be \$30,000.

Arrangements have been made by which the deaf of British Columbia will be sent to this Institution for education until a sufficient number of children have been gathered to form a separate school. Seven pupils from that Province are now in attendance.

St. Louis Day-School.—Domestic Science and Manual Training have been added to the curriculum. The older pupils receive two hours' instruction each week along with classes composed of hearing children from the public schools. An interpreter is present throughout each recitation.

Siena (Italy) Institution.—The hundreth anniversary of the birth of P. Tommaso Pendola, founder of the Siena Institution, was duly celebrated at the Institute on June 22, 1900, with appropriate ceremonies, in which prominent officials of the city took part. An address was delivered by P. Vittorio Banchi, the Director of the Institution, and telegrams of congratulation were received from nearly all the schools for the deaf in Italy. The day was also celebrated at the Genoa Institution, where an address was delivered by Dr. Silvio Monaci, Director of the Institution, and the municipal authorities of Genoa placed a suitable inscription upon the house in that city where he was born. The July number of *L'Educazione dei Sordomuti* is wholly devoted to his memory, containing articles from various writers relating to the different phases of his important work for the deaf.

West Virginia School.—A convenient school building, containing twenty-four school-rooms and two exercise halls, has recently been erected and is now occupied. Two new teachers, one in the Primary Department and one of physical culture, have been appointed.

Zurich (Switzerland) Institution.—Mr. George Schibel, for sixty years Director of the Zurich Institution, died May 6, 1900, at the venerable age of ninety three. Mr. Schibel began his work as a teacher of the deaf with a single pupil at Altorf, in Würtemberg, in 1826. In 1829 he was appointed a teacher in the Esslingen Institution, and in 1832 was transferred to the Zurich Institution, where he remained until 1892. His term of service exceeds in length that of any other teacher of the deaf in the world, except Professor Samuel Porter, of

Gallaudet College, and the quality of his work, which related to the blind as well as the deaf, was excellent. An interesting sketch of his life and labors, by Mr. Gotthilf Kull, his successor as Director of the Zurich Institution, was begun in the June number of the *Organ der Taubstumm-Anstalten in Deutschland*, and is still in course of publication.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

WANTED.—A hearing lady teacher of experience with the deaf. One trained in oral work preferred, although the class is an advanced class in the manual department. A teacher trained for this work, and well educated, of limited experience, might be suitable. Send references with application. Address Superintendent Oregon School for the Deaf, Salem, Oregon.

WANTED.—By a young woman of three years' experience, a position teacher of articulation and speech-reading. Address Miss MacGinnis, 311 Wabantongo street, Pottsville, Pennsylvania.

New Language Chart, by R. H. Atwood of the Ohio State Institution for the Deaf. Fifteen Fundamental Forms of Expression. A great aid in teaching language. A saving of time and labor in the classroom. Also the best method of showing the compounding and complexing sentences from short simple ones. For prices, address R. H. Atwood, 838 East Oak Street, Columbus, O.

Copies of Dr. HARVEY P. PEER's advice to parents of young deaf children, entitled "The Family Instruction of the Deaf in Early Childhood," reprinted from the Twenty-seventh Report of the New York Institution, may be obtained from the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C., at ten cents each, postage included.

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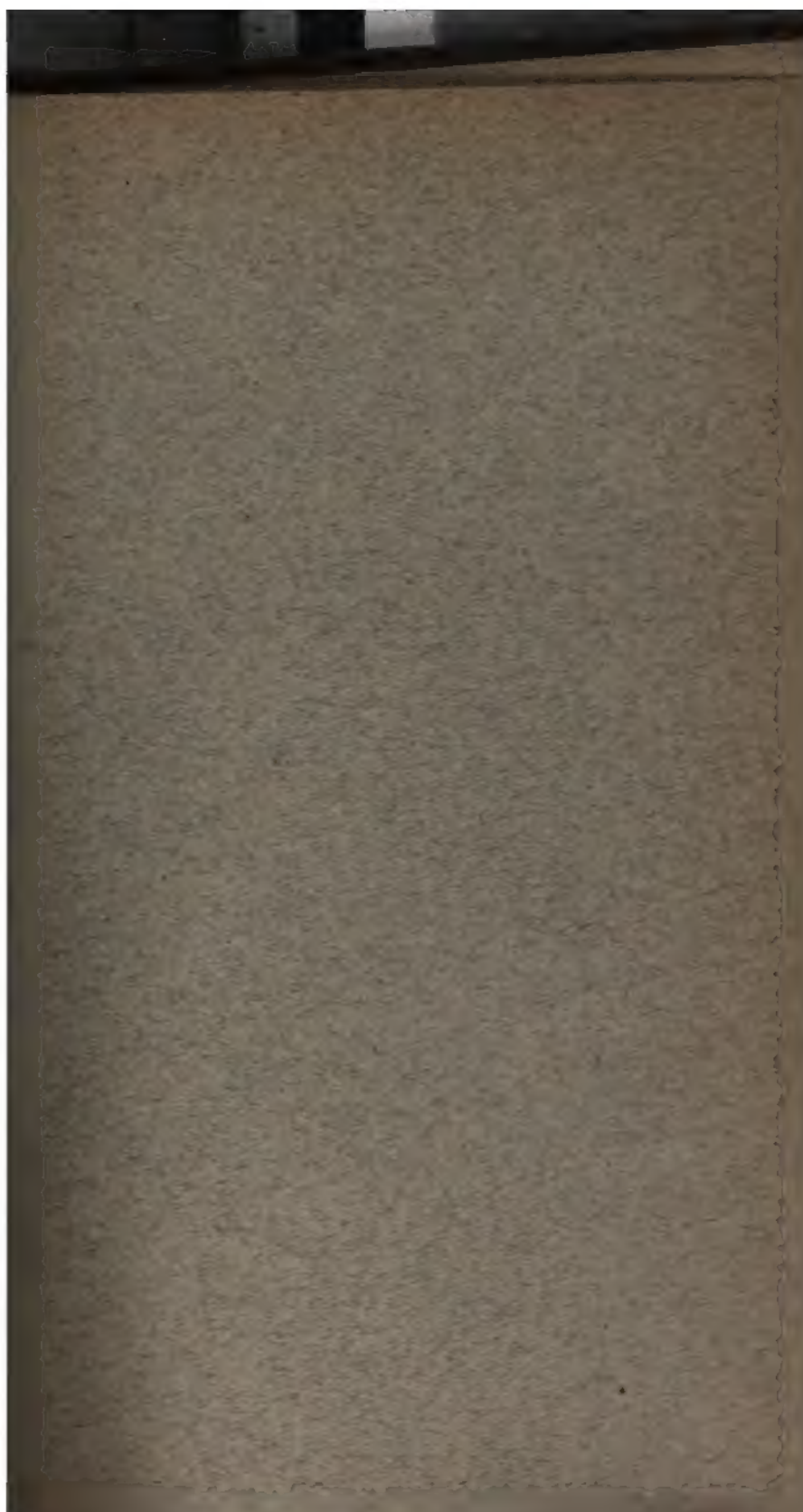
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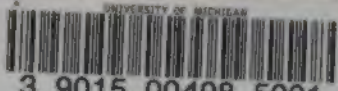
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